

ERICODIC TABLEBOOK A VISUAL ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE ELEMENTS







ERICODIC TABLEBOK A VISUAL ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE ELEMENTS

WRITTEN BY TOM JACKSON CONSUITANT JACK CHALLONER





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A WORLD OF IDEAS: **SEE ALL THERE IS TO KNOW**

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Chunk of yttrium



Chunk of silver



Zirconium crystal bar



Foreword

Everything in nature, from the mountains and the oceans to the air we breathe and food we eat are made up of simple substances called elements. You may have already heard of several of them, including gold, iron, oxygen, and helium, but these are just four out of a total of 118. Many have unique – and sometimes surprising – chemical and physical properties. Gallium, for example, is a solid but melts in your hand. A compound of sulfur gives off a nasty smell of rotten eggs. Fluorine is a gas that can burn a hole straight through concrete!

The elements are rarely found in their pure form. Mostly, they are combined with each other to make compounds, which make up substances around us. For example, hydrogen and oxygen make water, sodium and chlorine form salt, and carbon is found in millions of compounds, many of which – including proteins and sugars – make our bodies work.

To find out more about the elements, we need to take a good look at the periodic table. This is used by scientists around the world to list and detail the elements. It shows the key information



Nickel balls



Cube of melting gallium



Iodine in a glass sphere





Barium crystals



Chunk of grey selenium



Magnesium crystals

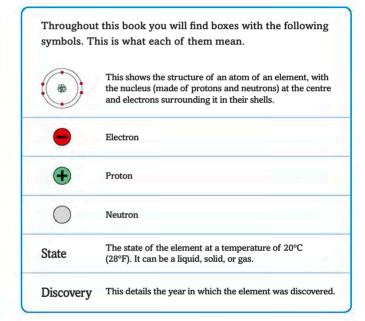


Osmium pellet

for each element, grouping them into similar types. With this information, we can use the elements to make many things we need: a fluorine compound in toothpastes toughens our teeth and silicon crystals engineered into microchips operate our gadgets and phones.

Every element has its own story of where it comes from, what it can do, and how we use it. Let's begin a tour of every element one by one. It's going to be a fascinating journey.

Tom Jackson





Chunk of uranium



Gold crystals



Thulium crystals



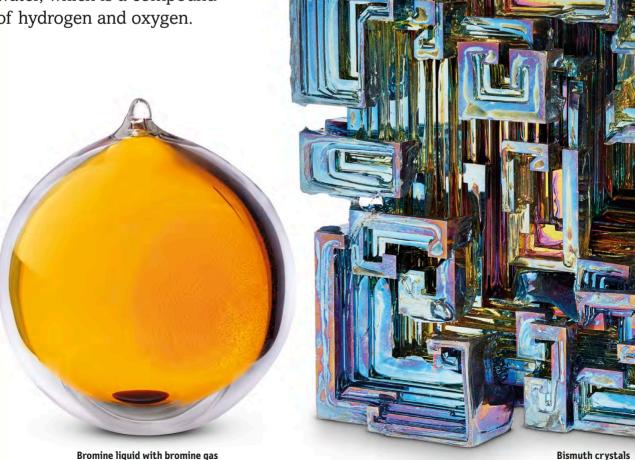
Calcium crystals

Elemental building blocks

Elements are everywhere: some you can see, like gold, others are almost invisible, like oxygen gas. An element is a substance that cannot be broken up into simpler ingredients. Each one is made up of tiny building blocks called atoms, which are unique for every element. Most elements are joined with other elements to make compounds, which are made by combining two or more elements. This includes water, which is a compound of hydrogen and oxygen.

Elements in our world

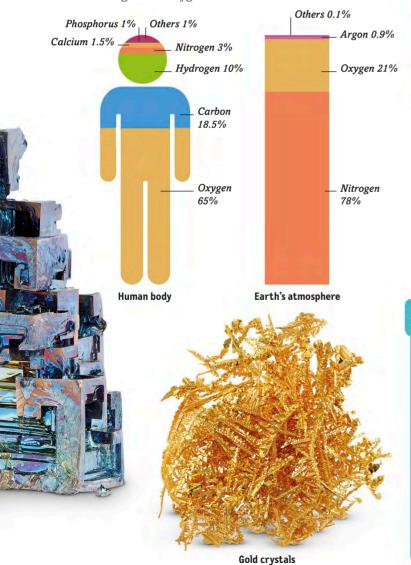
There are 118 elements in the periodic table; 92 of them are found in nature, while the others are made by humans. Every element is unique. Most of the elements are solids, like the metals. At room temperature, 11 elements are gases, while bromine and mercury are the only two liquids.





Elements in and around us

About 99 per cent of the human body is made from just six elements, though they are combined together to form thousands of different compounds. On the other hand, Earth's atmosphere is a mixture of gases, most of which are pure elements. About 99 per cent of the air is made from nitrogen and oxygen.



Ancient ideas

The idea of elements is very old, dating back about 2,600 years to ancient Greece. However, Greek thinkers believed that the world was made of just four elements: earth, water, fire, and air. Empedocles, an influential scholar, was the first to propose that these elements made up all structures. Only much later did scientists learn that none of these are actually elements. For thousands of years, everybody from ancient Egyptian priests to medieval European alchemists, speculated about the definiton and classification of an element.



Iranian alchemists in their workshop

Alchemy and mysticism

Chemists are scientists who study elements and compounds. However, before they existed, the alchemists were medieval researchers. Believing in a mixture of science and magic, alchemists tried to change ordinary metals (such as lead) into gold. They failed because elements cannot be changed from one type to another. But, in the process, they discovered many new elements and developed several processes that chemists still use today.



ROBERT BOYLE

The first person to use science to understand the elements was the Irish scientist and inventor Robert Boyle. He pursued science through reason, and in the 1660s he performed the first chemistry experiments to show that much of what the alchemists believed was wrong.



Chemical discoveries

Humphry Davy

In the early 19th century, the English scientist Humphry Davy discovered several new metals. He used a revolutionary process called electrolysis, in which electric currents split chemical compounds into their elements. Davy discovered a total of nine new elements, including magnesium, potassium, and calcium.

The ancient concept of four elements – earth, water, fire, and air – expanded to a belief that every substance on Earth was made from a mixture of these elements. However, many substances including mercury, sulfur, and gold did not fit this idea. Over the last 300 years, chemists have followed a long series of clues to reveal the true nature of elements, their atoms, and what happens to them during chemical reactions.

Pioneering chemists

Many of the first breakthroughs in chemistry came in the 1700s, from investigations into the composition of air. Chemists such as Joseph Black, Henry Cavendish, and Joseph Priestly discovered several different "airs", which we now call gases. They also found that the gases could react with solid substances, which they called "earths". These discoveries began a journey that revealed that there were dozens of elements, not just four. Today, scientists have identified 118 elements, but more may be discovered in time.

Antoine Lavoisier

In 1777, the French scientist Antoine Lavoisier proved that sulfur was an element. This yellow substance was familiar for thousands of years, but Lavoisier performed experiments to show that it was a simple substance that could not be divided up any further. In the same year, he also found out that water was not an element, but a compound of hydrogen and oxygen.



10

Granule of pure sulfur

Magnesium crystals



JOHN DALTON

Like many scientists of his day, the English scientist John Dalton already believed that matter must be made of tiny particles. In 1803, he began to think about how these particles might join together. He came to realize that there are different particles for every element, and that the particles of one element all have the same mass. He also realized that the particles of different elements combine in simple proportions to make compounds. So, for example, the particles of the elements carbon and oxygen can combine to make carbon monoxide. He suggested that during a chemical reaction, the particles rearrange to make compounds. He formulated the first modern theory of atoms



Dalton's table of elements

Jacob Berzelius

In the early 1800s, the Swedish doctor Jacob Berzelius investigated chemicals in rocks and minerals. He found two minerals that contained new elements. He named these elements cerium (after Ceres, the dwarf planet) and thorium (after Thor, the Viking god of thunder). Berzelius also invented a system of using symbols and numbers that chemists still use to identify elements and compounds today.



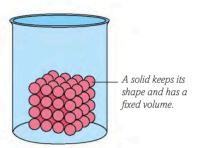
Chunk of pure cerium



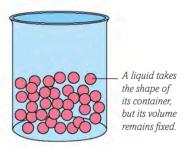
a sealed container

States of matter

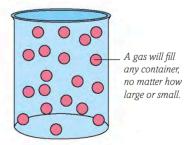
Elements can exist in three states of matter: solid, liquid, and gas. At room temperature, most elements are solids, 11 are gases, and only two are liquids. However, elements can change from one state into another. These changes don't alter the atoms of these elements, but arrange them in different ways.



In a solid, all the atoms are attracted to each other and locked in position.



In a liquid, the atoms begin to move around as the attraction between them weakens.



In a gas, the atoms are weakly attracted to each other, so they all move in different directions.

Robert Bunsen

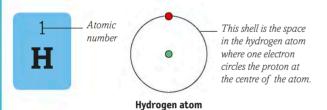
The German chemist Robert Bunsen is best known for inventing a gas burner that is often used in laboratories. In the 1850s, Bunsen used such a burner – which produced a hot, clean flame – to study the unique flame colours produced by different elements. When an unknown substance made bright blue flames, he named it caesium, meaning "sky blue".

Inside an atom

An atom is the smallest unit of an element. Atoms are too small to see (even with the most powerful microscopes) but they are everywhere. They consist of smaller particles called protons, neutrons, and electrons. Every element has a unique number of protons.

What's the atomic number?

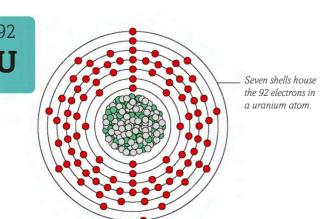
The number of protons in an atom of an element is called the atomic number. The atomic number of an atom identifies the element it belongs to. Every atom also has an equal number of electrons. For elements found naturally on Earth, hydrogen has the smallest atomic number (1), while uranium atoms have the highest atomic number (92).



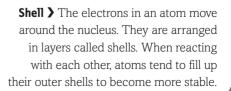
In a lithium atom, two shells house three electrons, which circle the protons and neutrons at the centre.

Lithium atom

Uranium atom



Electron > The tiny, negatively charged particles in an atom are called electrons. They are involved in the way the atoms of an element react and form bonds with the atoms of other elements.



Neutron > As its name suggests, neutrons are neutral particles, which means they do not have an electric charge. A neutron weighs the same as a proton, and much more than a electron.

> **Proton >** Protons have a positive electric charge. This charge attracts the negatively charged electrons, holding them in place around the nucleus. Because each proton's charge is cancelled out by the equal charge of an electron, the atom has no overall charge, and is therefore neutral.

Nucleus > The central core, or nucleus, of an atom is made up of protons and neutrons. Nearly all the mass of the atom is packed into the nucleus, and this gives every element a unique atomic mass.

Atomic facts





Isotopes

While every element has a unique number of electrons and protons in its atoms, the number of neutrons can vary. These different forms are called isotopes. For example, helium has two isotopes: one contains three neutrons (He-3), the other has four (He-4).



Electromagnet attracts metal pieces

Electromagnetism

Atoms work like tiny magnets. A force called electromagnetism holds them together. It makes particles with opposite charges, such as protons and electrons, attract each other. Those with similar charges repel each other. A magnet is an object in which the magnetic forces of the atoms attract and repel other objects. An electromagnet develops magnetism when an electric current runs through it.

ATOMIC PIONEERS

During his atomic research in the early 20th century, Sir Ernest Rutherford, a New Zealand scientist, expanded our understanding of the structure of atoms. He discovered protons and proved that they were located in an atom's nucleus.



Sir Ernest Rutherford

Periodic table of elements

Н 1 0079

T.i 6.941

Be 9.0122

moved below to give them more space. The periodic table is a useful way of organizing the elements. It arranges the elements in order of their atomic number, which is the number of protons in the nucleus of an atom, and is unique to every element. The table also divides the elements into rows, called "periods", and columns, called "groups". Dmitri Mendeleev, the chemist who devised the table, arranged the elements based on the similarity of certain physical and chemical properties.

29

Cu

63.546

47

Ag

107.87

79

Au 196.97

111

Rg

64

Gd

157.25

96

Cm

(247)

30

Zn 65 39

48

Cd

112.41

80 Hg

200.59

112

Cn 285

65

Tb

158.93

97

Bk

(247)

Na 22.990	Mg 24.305									
19 K 39.098	20 Ca 40.078	21 Sc 44.956	22 Ti 47.867	23 V 50.942	24 Cr 51.996	25 Mn 54.938	26 Fe 55.845	27 Co 58.933	28 Ni 58.693	
37 Rb 85.468	38 Sr 87.62	39 Y 88.906	40 Zr 91.224	41 Nb 92.906	42 Mo 95.94	43 Tc (96)	44 Ru 101.07	45 Rh 102.91	46 Pd 106.42	
55 Cs 132.91	56 Ba 137.33	57-71 La-Lu	72 Hf 178.49	73 Ta 180.95	74 W 183.84	75 Re 186.21	76 Os 190.23	77 Ir 192.22	78 Pt 195.08	
87 Fr (223)	88 Ra (226)	89-103 Ac-Lr	104 Rf (261)	105 Db (262)	106 Sg (266)	107 Bh (264)	108 Hs (277)	109 Mt (268)	110 Ds (281)	
lantha between i metals d	rtinides and t nides are plac the alkaline ea and the transiti als, but have be	ced rth con	57 La 138.91	58 Ce 140.12	59 Pr 140.91	60 Nd 144.24	61 Pm (145)	62 Sm (150.36)	63 Eu 151.96	

90

Th

232.04

Ac

91

Pa

93

Np

92

U

238.03

94

Pu

(244)

95

Am

KEY Hydrogen The Boron Group Alkali Metals The Carbon Group The Nitrogen Group Alkaline Earth Metals The Oxygen Group **Transition Metals** Lanthanides The Halogen Group Actinides **Noble Gases** Elements of this group are semi-metals (elements with the properties of metals and non-metals): This group contains 2 they are shiny like metals the noble gases, which but crumble easily never form bonds with other He like non-metals. elements, and are unreactive. 4.0026 5 6 8 9 10 B N F Ne 12.011 15.999 10.811 14.007 18.998 20.180 13 15 14 16 17 18 S A1 Si P Ar 26.982 30.974 28.086 32.065 35.453 39.948 31 32 33 34 35 36 Ga Se Ge As Br Kr 69.723 72.64 74.922 78.96 79.904 83.80 49 52 50 51 53 54 Sb Sn Te In Xe 114.82 118.71 127.60 126.90 121.76 131.29 81 82 83 84 85 86 Tl Pb Bi Po At Rn 204.38 207.2 208.96 (209)(210)(222)113 114 115 116 117 118 Nh Fl Mc Ts I.v Og 284 289 288 293 294 294 69 66 67 68 70 71 Ho Yb Er Tm Lu Dy 162.50 164.93 167.26 168.93 173.04 174.97 99 98 100 101 102 103 No Es Fm Md Lr

(258)

(259)

(251)

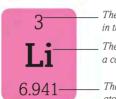
(252)

(257)

Reading the table

Element symbol

Every element has a unique symbol of one or two letters. These symbols ensure that scientists who speak different languages do not get confused while describing the same element.



The atomic number is the number of protons in the nucleus of this element's atoms.

The first letter of a symbol is always a capital, but the second is lower case.

The atomic mass number is the average of all the atoms of the element. It is not a whole number because there are different isotopes (forms) of each element, each with a different number of neutrons.

Periods

Elements in the same period, or row, have the same number of electron shells in their atoms. So elements in period one have one electron shell, while those in period six have six electron shells.



Groups run from top to bottom.

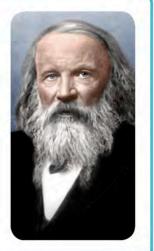
Groups

Members of a group, or column, all have the same number of electrons in their outermost shell. For example, group one elements have one outer electron, while group eight elements have eight outer electrons.

a

DMITRI MENDELEEV

The periodic table was developed by the Russian chemist Dmitri Mendeleev in 1869. Others had tried before, but his table was periodic, or repeating, because the characteristics of elements follow a pattern. The table was incomplete as some elements had not yet been discovered. However, Mendeleev predicted the positions of the missing elements, and was proved right when they were finally isolated many years later.



Explosive reaction

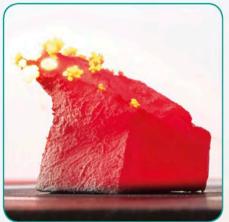
In this chemical reaction, pure lithium reacts with air to make the compound lithium oxide. It takes energy to break the links between the lithium atoms and then make bonds with oxygen in the air. Reactions need energy to begin, but they often produce energy as heat and light.



1. This piece of pure lithium is placed on a surface and is exposed to the air.

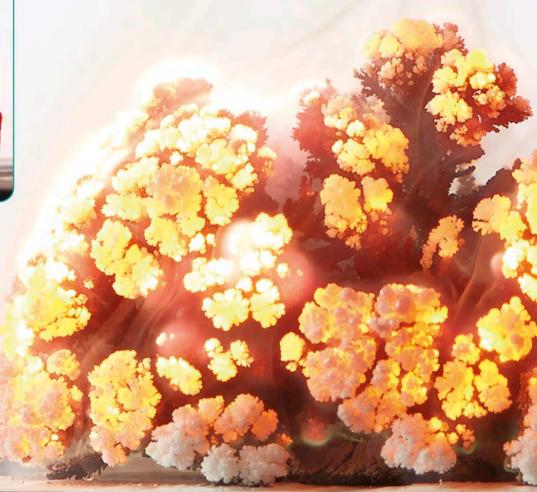
Reactions and uses

The elements can combine in different ways to make 10 million compounds, possibly more. As well as learning about the physical and chemical properties of elements, chemists also want to find out how and why certain elements react with each other to form compounds. Chemical reactions are happening all the time. During a reaction, substances change into new substances. The bonds that hold them are broken and then remade in a different combination.



2. A gas torch is used to heat the lithium, and in just a few seconds it turns red, which is a typical colour for this metal when it becomes hot

3. Very quickly, the lithium catches fire. The white areas forming here are the compound lithium oxide, which is a combintion of lithium and oxygen.



Mixtures

A mixture is a combination of substances that can be separated by physical means, such as filtering. It is not the same as a compound, where the ingredients are connected by bonds and can only be separated using a chemical reaction. Mixtures can be classified as solutions, colloids, and suspensions.



Solution

In this mixture, a substance is completely and evenly mixed, or dissolved, into another substance. Seawater is a solution.



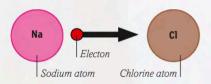
Colloid

This mixture contains unevenly spread particles and clusters that are too small to see. Milk is a colloid.



Suspension

This type of mixture consists of large particles of one substance floating in another substance. Muddy water is a suspension.



1. A sodium atom donates one electron to a chlorine atom. This gives both atoms full outer electron shells.

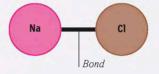


The sodium The chlorine ion is positive. ion is negative.

2. These are now charged atoms known as ions.

The sodium ion has a positive charge and the

chlorine ion has a negative charge.



3. Sodium is attracted to – and forms a bond with – chlorine, forming a molecule of the compound sodium chloride.

Forming compounds

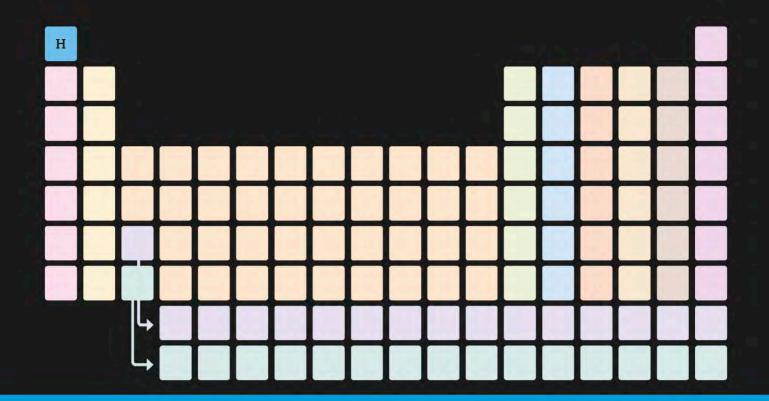
There are two kinds of bonds formed between elements during a chemical reaction. In an ionic bond, such as in sodium chloride (above), one atom gives away its electron(s) and another accepts them. This results in each having full outer electron shells. The other type is called covalent bonding. In this, atoms sit together and share their electrons so they both have full outer shells.



Chemical reactions happen all around us. There are reactions when we cook, take medication, or breathe. The image above shows a rusty iron ship. Over time, the element iron develops this red, flaky layer when it reacts with oxygen present in water or air to form the compound iron oxide – more commonly known as rust.







Hydrogen

The first element, hydrogen (H), is located above the alkali metals in the first column of the periodic table. However, because it is so different to the elements below it, hydrogen is not included in their group. This gas has the simplest atoms of any element with one electron and one proton. It is highly reactive and forms compounds with all kinds of other elements.



Atomic structure
A hydrogen (H) atom
has one electron moving
around a nucleus
consisting of a
single proton.



Physical properties
Hydrogen gas is the lightest
material in the Universe. Pure
hydrogen is rare on Earth, as
it escapes quickly from the
atmosphere into space.

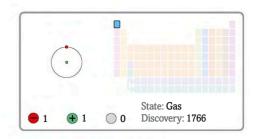


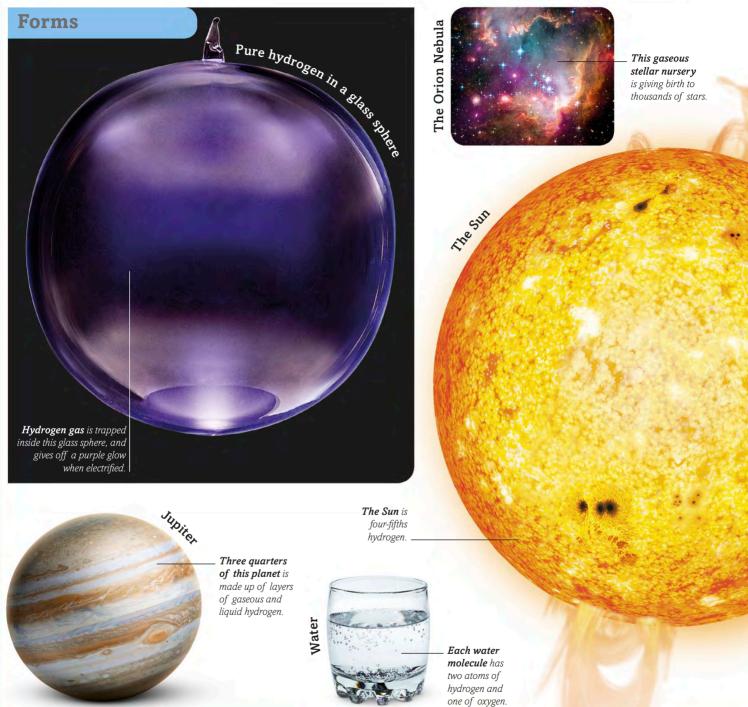
Chemical properties
Hydrogen is highly
flammable. It
forms compounds
with both metals
and non-metals.



Compounds
The most common
hydrogen compound
is water. Acids are
compounds that
contain hydrogen.

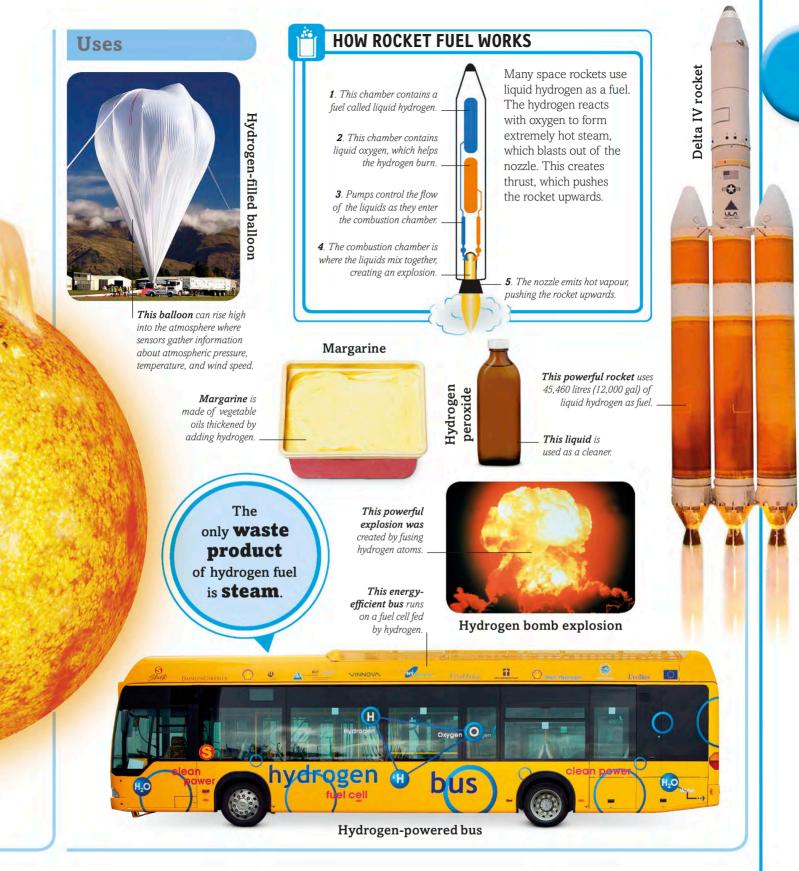
Hydrogen





Hydrogen is the first member of the periodic table because it has the simplest atoms of all elements: they contain just one proton and one electron. Pure hydrogen is a transparent gas. The biggest planets, such as **Jupiter**, are vast balls of hydrogen mixed with

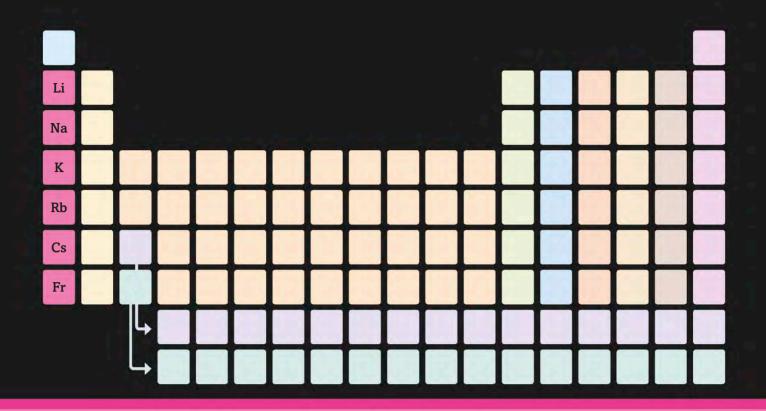
other gases, such as helium and methane. On Earth, hydrogen is commonly found in **water**. Although it is rare in Earth's atmosphere, hydrogen is the most common element in the Universe. Stars, such as the **Sun**, contain large amounts of hydrogen. At the centre of a star, atoms of



this element are fused together, releasing heat and light. New stars form inside **nebulae** – such as the **Orion Nebula**. They are clouds of hydrogen gas that slowly collapse in on themselves. Hydrogen gas is the lightest element of all, and much lighter than air. This is why **hydrogen-filled balloons**

can fly higher than air-filled ones. Supercold liquid hydrogen is used as **rocket** fuel. Atoms of hydrogen fuse together to produce a lot of energy in **hydrogen bomb** explosions. Pure hydrogen is also a clean energy source used to power some **buses** and cars.





Alkali Metals

After hydrogen (H) – which is in a group of its own – the first column of the periodic table contains the alkali metals. This group gets its name from the way the elements react with water. These vigorous reactions always produce acid-attacking compounds called alkalis. None of the alkali metals are ever found in a pure form in nature. The first three metals are common in many minerals, while the last three are rarer.



Atomic structure

The atoms of all alkali metals have just one electron in their outer shell. Alkali metal atoms are among the biggest of all atoms.



Physical propertiesThese metals are soft

enough to be cut with a knife. They are all silvery and very shiny when clean.



Chemical properties

Alkali metals are highly reactive. They form bonds with other elements, giving away their single outer electron.



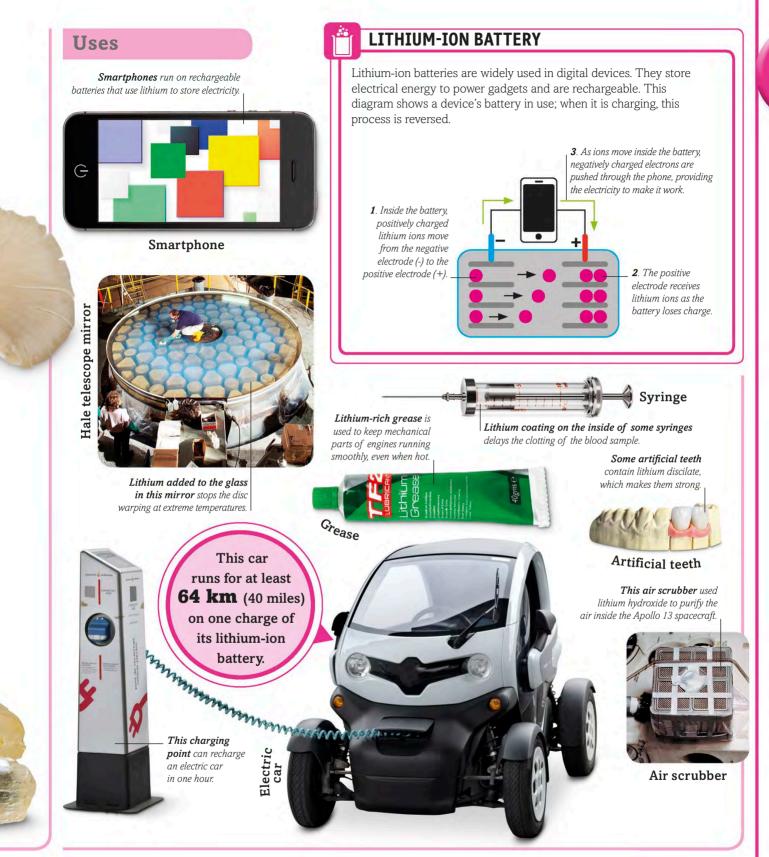
Compounds

These metals react with water to form compounds called hydroxides. They react easily with halogens to form salts, such as sodium chloride.



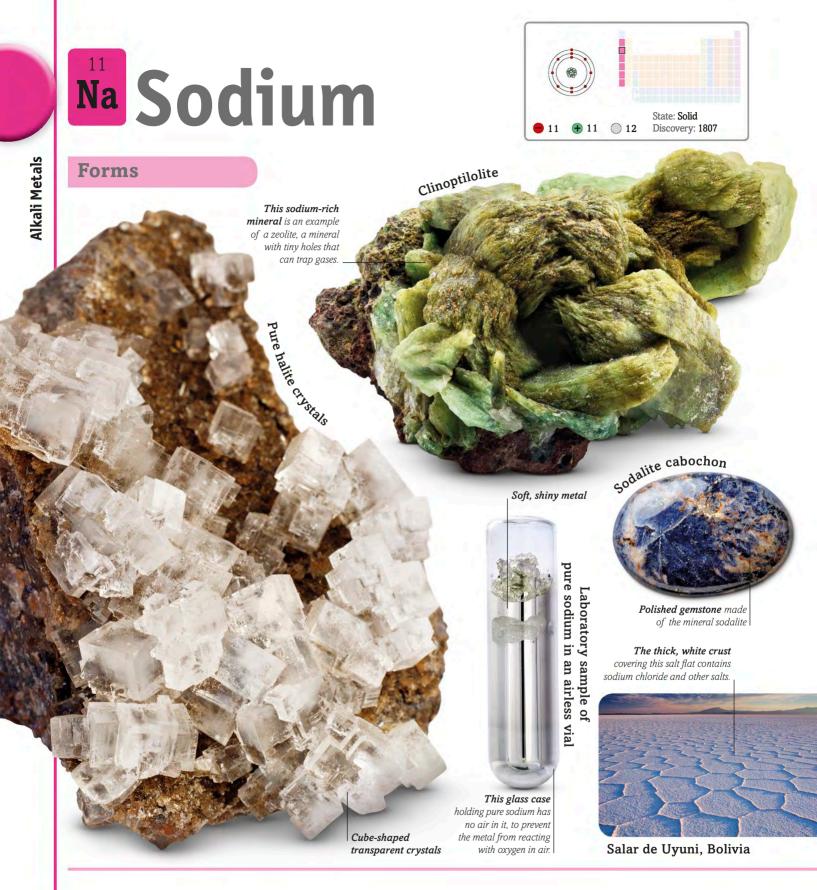
Lithium is the the lightest of all metals: in fact, it can easily float on water. Pure lithium is very reactive and exists in nature only in minerals, such as lepidolite and petalite. Many lithium minerals dissolve well in water, and the world's seawater

contains millions of tonnes of dissolved lithium. Lithium is found in many foods, such as **mushrooms**, **prawns**, nuts, and seeds. It also has many everyday applications. Glass composed of lithium is resistant to heat and is used in scientific equipment, such as **mirrors inside**



telescopes. The main use for lithium is in rechargeable batteries. Lithium-ion batteries are small but powerful, so they are ideal for **smartphones** and tablet computers. Larger lithium batteries can power **electric cars**, which are less polluting than petrol-powered

ones. A soapy compound called lithium stearate is used to make **grease**, which helps automobile engines run smoothly. This element also forms hard ceramics that are used to produce strong **artificial teeth**. Lithium compounds are used in some medicines as well.



Everyday salt contains lots of sodium.

Although abundant on Earth, sodium is never found in its pure form naturally: it forms compounds with other elements. Sodium chloride, which also contains chlorine, is the most common sodium compound. It is also known as the mineral halite, and it is what makes seawater salty. Other sodium minerals include **sodalite**, a soft blue stone that can be shaped and polished. **Pure sodium** is soft enough to be cut with a knife. It reacts with oxygen in the air, forming a compound called sodium oxide, and bursts



into flames when in contact with water. Sodium compounds in **fireworks** burn with a yellow-orange colour. In ancient Egypt, crystals of sodium compounds were used to preserve dead bodies as **mummies**. Another useful compound is sodium bicarbonate, or **baking soda**, which makes dough

rise by releasing bubbles of carbon dioxide. When refined, sodium chloride, or **common salt**, has several uses. It makes ice melt so it is used in salty grit added to slippery, frozen roads. This helps **de-ice** them to make them safer. It is also an important seasoning for meals.

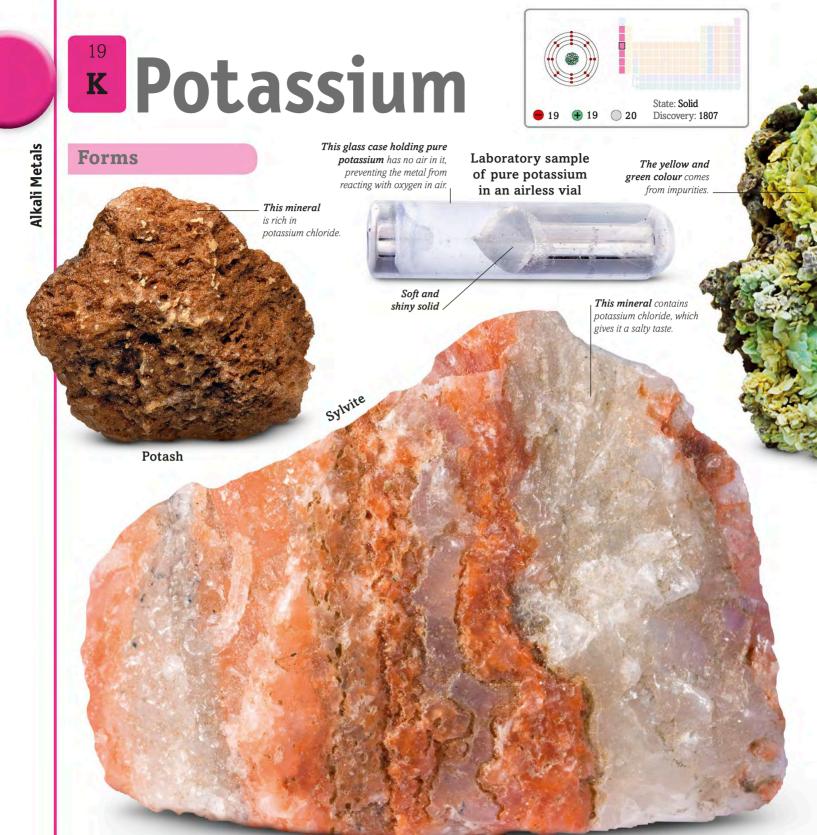


SALT FLATS Hundreds of artificial ponds dot the hillside near the small town of Maras, high in the Andes of Peru. The ponds fill with water from a stream that runs down from the nearby mountains. In the sunshine, the water evaporates, leaving behind a thick salt crust that can be collected. The people of Maras have been gathering salt in this way for at least 500 years.



The salt forms part of rocks deep underground before it is dissolved by the stream and flows into the pools. Evaporation can also be used to collect salt from seawater or other salty water sources (known as brines). Today, however, most of the world's salt comes from underground mines containing thick layers of salt that are a result of

ancient seas drying out. Over millions of years, that dry salt has become buried under dense layers of rocks. This so-called "rock salt" is sometimes unearthed using excavators. At other mines, it is washed out by piping in warm water, which dissolves the salt. The brine is then pumped up to the surface for evaporation.



Potassium was first found in the dust of burnt plants. It was discovered by Sir Humphry Davy when he experimented with **potash** — a mixture of substances made from the ash of burnt plants soaked in water. The name potassium comes from potash but the

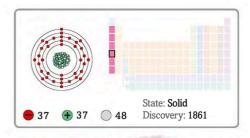
element's chemical symbol, K, is taken from *kalium*, a Latin word for "ash". Potassium is never found pure in nature, but is present in minerals such as **aphthitalite** and **sylvite**. Potassium is vital for the human body, helping muscles and nerves work properly. For this, we rely on



potassium-rich food, such as bananas, root vegetables, and avocados, which contain potassium chloride. In tiny amounts, this compound can enhance flavours, as it does in **soda water**. It is also a healthy alternative to sodium chloride, or common salt, and an

important ingredient in saline drips for rehydrating patients who are seriously ill. Potassium nitrate is a compound of potassium, oxygen, and nitrogen, and is found in gunpowder and toughened glass screens for mobile phones.

Rubidium





Rubidium was named after the Latin word *rubidius*, meaning "deepest red". This refers to the red-coloured flame it produces when burned. This highly reactive element ignites on contact with air. On contact with water, it reacts vigorously, producing hydrogen gas and a lot of

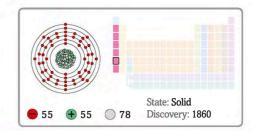
heat. Rubidium is not often concentrated in particular minerals, but instead is spread in small amounts through a wide range of minerals, such as **leucite** and **pollucite**. The pure metal is sourced mainly from the mineral **lepidolite**. Another mineral called rubicline has even more



rubidium in it but is very rare. Rubidium atoms are sensitive to light and can be used in photoelectric cells (devices that convert light energy into electricity) and **night-vision equipment**. This element has radioactive forms, which can be used to measure the age of rocks. When injected into a

patient's body, rubidium targets tumours, which show up clearly on **PET (positron emission tomography) scans**. Rubidium is also used by light-sensitive electronics called **photomultipliers**, and in making **insulators** for high-voltage cables and some special types of glass.

cs Caesium







Shiny, silver-gold metal

Laboratory Sample of Pure

Sealed glass tube

Uses

This highly accurate clock is also called a caesium clock.



Atomic clock



KIRCHHOFF AND BUNSEN

Caesium was discovered in 1860 by German scientists Robert Bunsen and Gustav Kirchhoff. They burned a sample of mineral water on a burner, which split the flame's light into individual colours. One of them was a distinctive light blue, which came from caesium.



Gustav Kirchhoff (left) and Robert Bunsen (right





High-density caesium compounds in this fluid stop toxic gases rising to the surface.

Drilling fluid

As the most reactive metal on Earth, caesium explodes into flames if in contact with air or water. Therefore, pure caesium, is stored in a sealed glass tube from which all the air has been sucked out. This element is rare, and most of it is extracted from the mineral **pollucite**. Its name

means "sky blue" and refers to the colour of caesium's flame when burning. Caesium is used in **atomic clocks**, which measure time down to a billionth of a second. These clocks are so accurate that they would gain or lose no more than one second every 300 years.

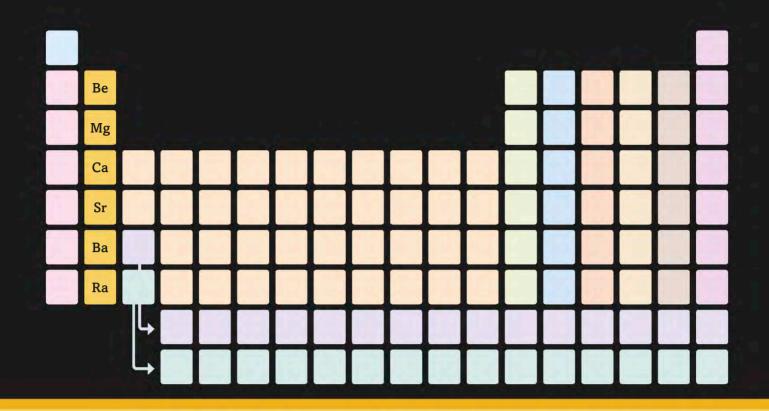
Fr Francium



Francium is the rarest natural element on Earth. Scientists think there may be just 30 g (1.1 oz) of francium in Earth's rocks. Francium atoms are created when radioactive elements break down. Francium can be extracted from radioactive ores such as

thorite and uraninite, both of which contain tiny amounts of this element. Even so, to date the largest sample of the metal made contained only 300,000 atoms, and lasted only a few days. Francium has no known uses outside of research.





Alkaline Earth Metals

This group is a collection of reactive metals that were discovered as compounds inside common minerals in Earth's crust. Most of these minerals – known in the past as "earths" – are alkaline (alkali-producing), and this is how the group got its name. All alkaline earth metals were first purified in the 19th century.



Atomic structure
The alkaline earth metals
have two electrons in their
outermost electron shell.
Radium (Ra) is the most
radioactive member.



Physical properties
All members of this
group are soft and
shiny when pure. They
are solid at room
temperature.



Chemical properties
These metals are similar to
the alkali metals, but not as
reactive. Except for beryllium
(Be), all alkaline earth metals
react with hot water or steam.



Compounds

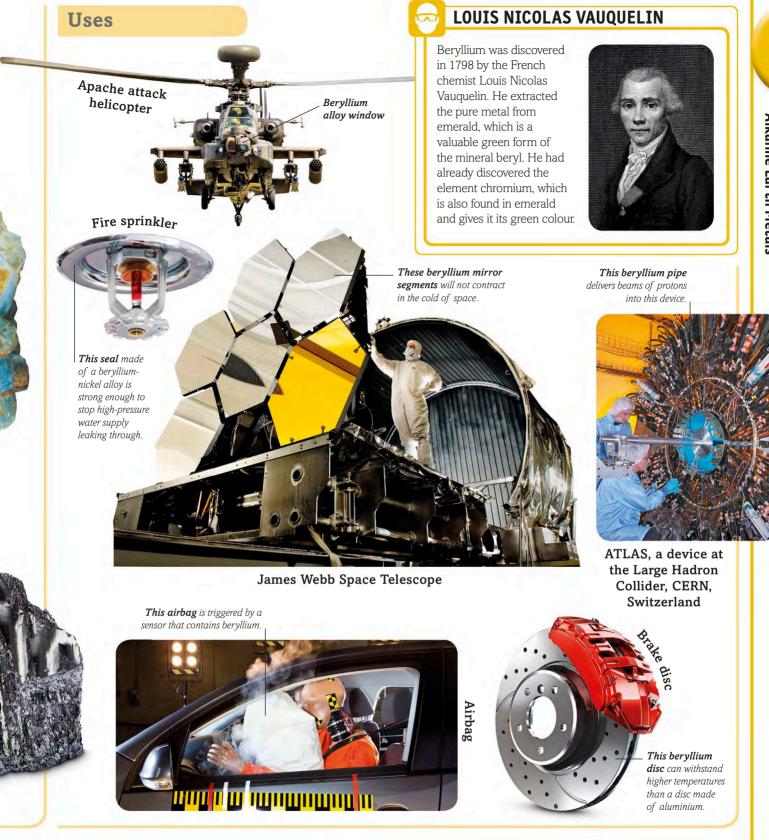
These elements form
compounds with non-metals
by losing their outermost
electrons. Several compounds
are found in teeth and bones.



This widely used element gets its name from the Greek word *beryllos*, after which the mineral beryl is also named. Beryllium is the lightest of the alkaline earth metals, but it does not share many of the group's properties. For example, it does not react with water and is

much harder than the other metals in its group. Two common beryllium minerals are **chrysoberyl** and beryl. Beryl has different forms, such as **aquamarine** and emerald. Beryllium is useful in many ways. For example, some military **helicopters** use windows made

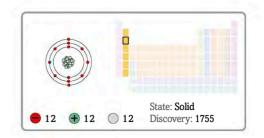
Lightweight metal



of beryllium-rich glass to shield optical sensors to aid pilots flying at night or through fog. Objects made of this metal keep their shape well and hardly expand or contract if the temperature changes. This makes beryllium useful in valves for **fire sprinklers** and car

sensors that trigger **airbags**. NASA's **James Webb Space Telescope** will use a large
beryllium mirror that is light and strong. Beryllium
is also used to make **brake discs** for racing
cars. Alloys of beryllium and copper are used
in springs as well.

Mg Magnesium





Magnesium was named after Magnesia in Greece. This element largely exists deep inside Earth's mantle, but it can also be found in seawater and many minerals in our planet's crust, including **serpentine**. Another mineral, **dolomite**, is also a source of **pure magnesium**.

Magnesium has many important applications. Alloys of magnesium are not only strong, but also lightweight, so are used in a range of objects, from car wheels to cameras. For centuries, many naturally occurring magnesium minerals have been used in traditional medicines.



Magnesium carbonate, or **magnesia**, reacts with acid in the stomach to settle indigestion. Heating magnesia produces magnesium oxide, which is one of the ingredients in **cement**. Magnesium compounds are also used in fireworks, and they burn hot with a white

flame. Salts composed of magnesium, called **Epsom salts**, named after the place in England where they were first mined, work as a muscle relaxant. Magnesium silicate, known as talc, is a soft mineral used in body powders.



The most abundant metal in the human body, calcium is also the fifth most common element on Earth. It appears in many minerals: calcite and aragonite are made of a compound of calcium and carbon called calcium carbonate. Bones in animal **skeletons**

contain the compound calcium phosphate. The hard, outer layers of many other animals, such as the **shells** of sea snails, are made of calcium carbonate. Calcium is very important in our diet. We get calcium by eating calciumrich food, including dairy products, green



Oranges are also a good source of calcium, and most orange juices have extra calcium added to them. **Antacid tablets**, used to settle indigestion, contain calcium carbonate. This compound reacts with acid in the stomach. Calcium compounds are also common in

construction materials. Plasterboard, which is used to make walls smooth, **writing chalk**, and **Plaster of Paris** are all made from the mineral gypsum. Calcium oxide is an important ingredient in cement and helps turn it into hard concrete.



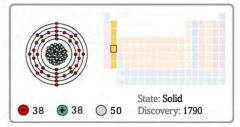
FLY GEYSER The multicoloured Fly Geyser in the Black Rock Desert of Nevada, USA, is made from a mound of calcium carbonate rock. Such mounds and pools are made naturally in many other places where springs gush out warm, calcium-rich waters. The amazing colours of the rocks are caused by algae and bacteria that live in this water.

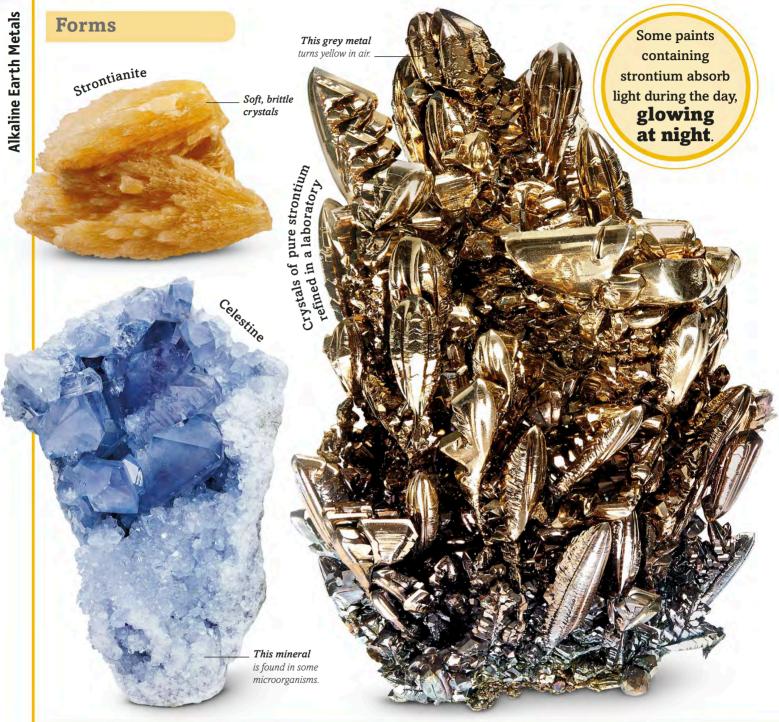


Fly Geyser is not a natural wonder. It was made by accident in 1964 when engineers were drilling a well to find a source of hot water. They did find a small reservoir of water that is heated by volcanic activity deep beneath the surface, but they chose to cap the well and look elsewhere. Eventually,

the hot water broke through, creating a natural fountain, or geyser. Over the decades, the calcium deposits have slowly built up. The central mound is now 1.5 m (5 ft) tall and nearly 4 m (13 ft) wide. The scalding water that gushes out can reach a height of 1.5 m (5ft).

Strontium Strontium





Strontium was discovered in 1791 in a mineral found near the Scottish village **of Strontian**. The mineral burned with a bright crimson flame, and Scottish chemist Thomas Charles Hope studied it and found that it contained a new element. This mineral was called **strontianite**, and it is the main ore of strontium. Pure strontium was first extracted by British chemist Humphry Davy in 1808, who conducted an experiment using electricity to obtain the element from the mineral. Strontium was once used in television screens, but today



there are fewer uses for it. Strontium oxide in pottery and **ceramic** glazes creates distinctive colours, while strontium carbonate produces a red colour in **flares** and fireworks. Magnets that contain iron oxide can be made stronger by adding strontium to them. These strong magnets

are used in **loudspeakers** and microwave ovens. Strontium chloride is added to some kinds of **toothpaste**, while radioactive strontium is a source of electricity for **radar stations** in remote places where there are no power lines or fuel supplies.



Barium is named after the Greek word barys, which means "heavy", because barium and its minerals are dense. The pure form of this element was first discovered in 1808 by the English chemist Humphry Davy, who extracted it from an oxide of barium. This

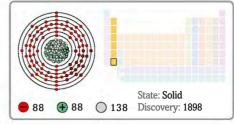
does not exist in nature. Davy obtained it by heating the mineral **witherite**. Today, the main source of barium is barite, a mineral of sulfur that forms in deserts and in rock deposits that come into contact with hot water. A rarer mineral called **benitoite** also contains barium. The

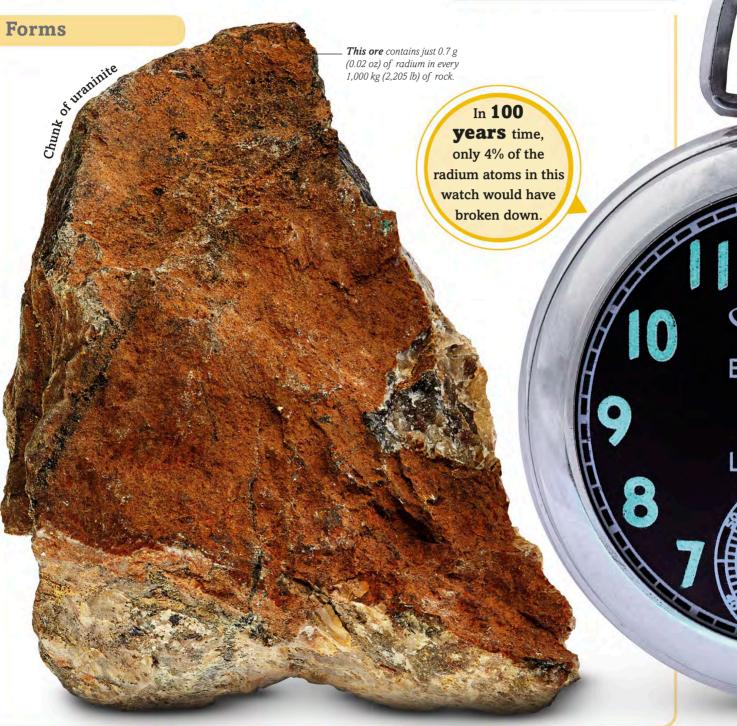


element is used in **spark plugs** to make them produce more powerful sparks and is added to **glass** to increase its shine. Barium compounds are added to some types of clay used for making **pots** and vases. In oil wells, barium compounds are added to drilling fluids to increase their

density. Doctors make use of barium's density by giving patients a solution of barium compound to swallow, before taking **X-rays** of their digestive system. The barium makes the soft digestive organs denser, allowing them to be seen clearly with an X-ray machine.

Radium





Radium is the only radioactive member of the alkaline earth metals. It is also the rarest element in this group, and forms in small amounts when the atoms of more common metals – such as uranium and thorium – break down. Radium atoms do not survive for long,

with most of them quickly decaying into radon, a radioactive noble gas. This element is highly dangerous and is rarely used today. However, in the early 20th century, radium compounds were in common use. Luminous paints, like those used to make **watch dials**

PIERRE AND MARIE CURIE Uses Radium was discovered in 1898 by Marie and Pierre Curie. They found that uranium ores produced more radioactivity than Alkaline Earth Metals expected from samples of uranium. They realized another radioactive metal was present and named The radium paint it radium. in this clock makes the numbers glow green-blue in the dark. This vial contains a liquid called radium chloride. Vials for radium treatment pocket watch with a luminous dial This machine from the early 20th century mixed radium into water, which was thought to make it healthier to drink. Cosmetics Radium emanator Radium face powder was once thought Skin lotions containing to be good for radium were common the skin. in the 1920s.

glow in the dark, were created using radium. People working with this paint often became ill, especially with cancer, because the radiation produced by radium damages DNA. Nevertheless, until the 1940s, many people thought radium's radioactivity made them

stronger, not weaker. They injected themselves with **vials containing a radium compound**, believing it gave them an energy boost. They also thought that creams and **cosmetics** with radium in them made the skin healthier, even though they did exactly the opposite.





Transition Metals

This is the largest set of elements in the periodic table. This block of metals contains useful elements, such as gold (Au), iron (Fe), and copper (Cu). Many of these metals are easy to shape. The fourth period of the block – from rutherfordium (Rf) to copernicium (Cn) – are artificial and do not occur in nature. They were created by scientists in laboratories.



Atomic structure
Most transition
metals have two
outer electrons, but
a few, such as copper
(Cu), have just one.



Physical properties
These elements are generally
hard and dense metals. Mercury
(Hg), the only element that is
liquid at room temperature,
also belongs to this group.

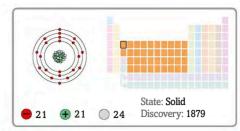


Chemical properties
Transition metals are not as reactive as alkali and alkaline earth metals. However, they form many varied and colourful compounds.



Compounds
Many compounds of
transition metals are brightly
coloured. These metals
are often used in alloys,
such as brass and steel.

Scandium Scandium

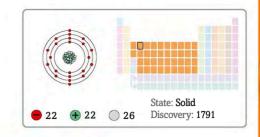


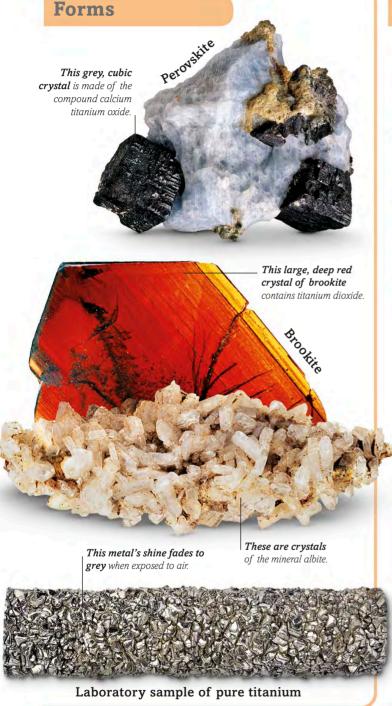


A soft and lightweight metal, scandium is **similar to aluminium**. It is spread so thinly in Earth's rocks that it is very difficult to collect a large amount of this element. Scandium is only used for specialist applications. Its main ores are the minerals gadolinite and euxenite, which

also contain small amounts of many other rare metals, such as cerium and yttrium. Scandium mixed with aluminium makes a strong alloy, which is used in lightweight equipment for sports, such as lacrosse, and to make highspeed jets, such as the MiG-29.

Ti Titanium



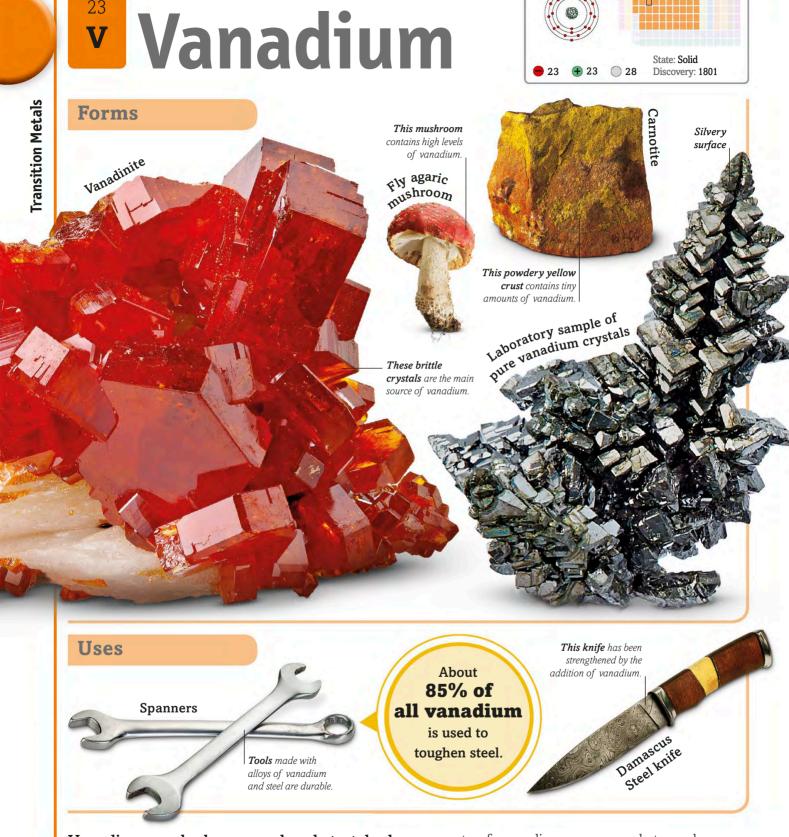






Named after the Titans, a race of mythic Greek gods, titanium is a silvery metal. It is as strong as steel but much lighter, and it is not corroded by water or chemicals. This strong metal also makes excellent protective shields in body armour. Titanium is commonly used

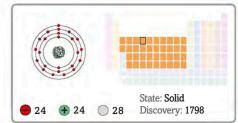
to prepare titanium dioxide, a compound of titanium and oxygen that is used in paints and **sunscreen**. Titanium is not toxic so it can be used to make medical implants, such as artificial **hip joints**. **Wristwatches** made with titanium alloys are light and strong.



Vanadium can be hammered and stretched without breaking. This hard, strong metal is easy to shape. Vanadium was first purified in 1869 by the British chemist Henry Roscoe. Today, it is commonly extracted from its ore vanadinite. Ancient metalworkers used tiny

amounts of vanadium compounds to make a very tough substance called **Damascus Steel**. This was named after the capital city of Syria, where ironworkers made the world's sharpest swords. Vanadium is still used to toughen tools, such as **spanners** and knives.

Chromium Chromium

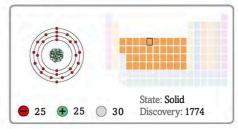




Chromium is named after *chroma*, the Greek word for "colour". Many minerals of chromium, including **chromite** and **crocoite**, are brightly coloured. An artificial form of crocoite, known as "chrome yellow", was once used in paints, but it was banned when scientists discovered it to be

poisonous. **Pure chromium** doesn't corrode easily, so it is combined with iron and carbon to produce **stainless steel**. Chromium also gives gemstones, such as **rubies**, their deep-red colour. Some **motorcycles** have chromium-plated bodywork, giving them a shiny finish.

Mn Manganese





Like magnesium, this element gets its name from the Greek region of Magnesia.

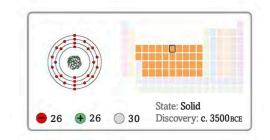
There are many manganese minerals, including the colourful mineral **rhodochrosite**. The pure form of the metal is obtained mainly from the ore **pyrolusite**. **Pure manganese** is dense, hard, and brittle. This element is present in seawater as the compounds manganese hydroxide and manganese oxide, which have built up in layers over millions of years to form masses on the sea bed. The human body needs a tiny amount of manganese, which we can get



from mussels, nuts, oats, and pineapples. The applications of manganese include its use in strengthening steel, which is used in making **railway tracks** and tank armour. Certain **dry cell batteries** carry a mixture containing manganese oxide. Manganese compounds

are also added to **petrol** and used to clean impurities from **glass** to make it clear or to give it a purple colour. In prehistoric times, the compound manganese dioxide was crushed to make the dark colours used in **cave paintings**.

Fe Iron

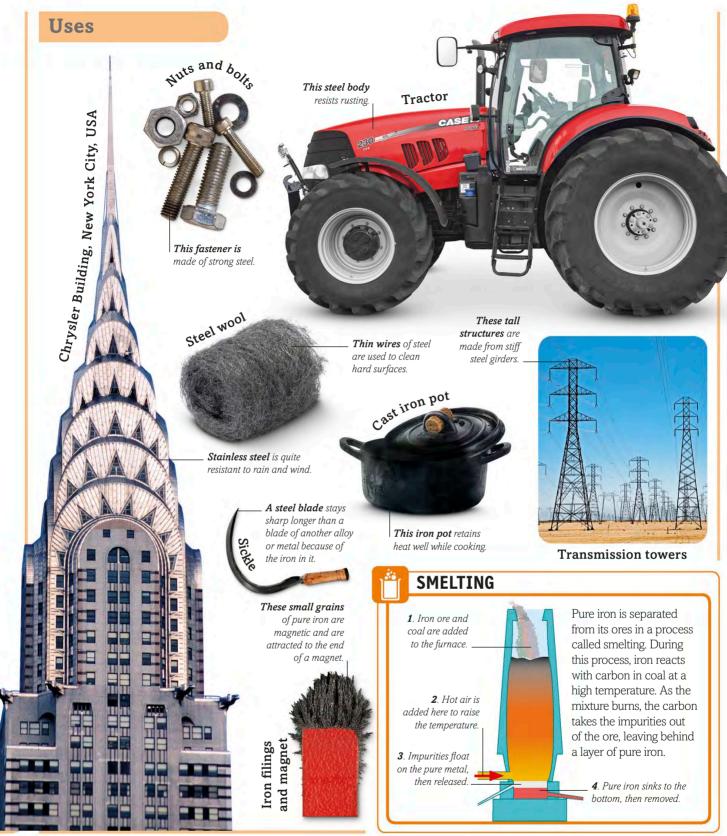


Forms



Most of the iron on our planet is locked away in Earth's hot, molten core. This element is widely found in rocks worldwide, and almost 2.5 billion tonnes of iron is purified every year. Mineral ores rich in iron include **pyrite**. Other ores, including haematite, are used to extract

pure iron in a process called smelting. **Iron-rich meteorites** – chunks of rock from outer space that crash to Earth – are one of very few sources of naturally pure iron. The human body uses iron to make haemoglobin, a substance in blood that carries oxygen around our body (oxygen helps



our cells produce energy for the body to work). Foods containing iron include meats and green vegetables, such as **spinach**. When pure iron comes into contact with air and water, it develops a flaky, reddish-brown coating called rust, which weakens the metal. In order to make iron tougher,

tiny amounts of carbon and other metals, such as nickel and titanium, are added to it. This forms an alloy called steel, which is used to make **bolts** and strong **tractor** bodies, among other applications. Adding the element chromium to steel creates a stronger alloy called stainless steel.



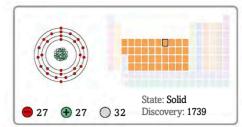
STEELMAKING A stream of red-hot, liquid metal pours from a furnace at a steelmaking workshop. This is the end of a long process in which iron ore is transformed into steel, a tough alloy that is strong enough to make girders for supporting skyscrapers and bridges. The steel may even be moulded into car bodies, woven into superstrong cables for elevators, or turned into powerful magnets that can levitate maglev trains.



Steel is an alloy of iron that contains about two per cent carbon and some other elements. The carbon locks all the atoms together and prevents the metal from cracking. This makes steel harder than iron: it bends before it breaks and doesn't shatter easily. To make steel, iron ore is smelted in a blast furnace to remove its impurities,

such as nitrogen, sulfur, or phosphorus. Other elements can be added to create different varieties of steel. For example, chromium in steel stops it from rusting, while manganese makes it harder. Adding silicon to steel can make the alloy more magnetic, while nickel makes it less brittle at extremely low temperatures.

cobalt





Medieval German miners often mistook ores of cobalt for precious metals. When they tried to purify these, the arsenic gas released made them sick. This unwanted side-effect led to the name *kobold*, which is German for "goblin", a mischievous spirit.

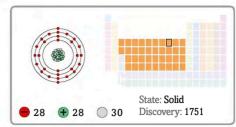
Pure cobalt is hard and shiny, and is added to steel and other alloys to make them stronger. Alloys containing cobalt are used in the blades of **jet engines** and in **artificial joints**, such as hip and knee joints. Cobalt is one of the few elements

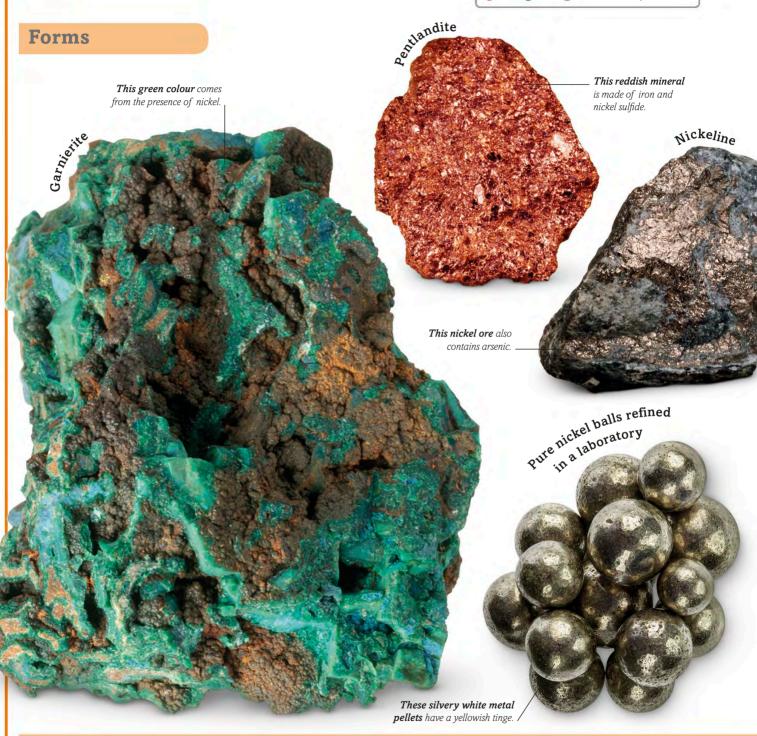


that can be used to make a permanent magnet. Large **permanent magnets** are made from a tough alloy of cobalt, nickel, and aluminium, called alnico. A radioactive form of cobalt, called cobalt-60, is produced in nuclear reactors. This form is widely

employed to **irradiate food**, a process by which food is exposed to a tiny dose of radiation to kill harmful germs. Cobalt can also produce a deep shade of blue: **cobalt blue paints** and dyes are formed by reacting aluminium with cobalt oxide.

Ni Nickel





Nickel is named after Old Nick, a demonic spirit from Christian lore that was believed to live underground. In the 18th century, German miners mistook a poisonous nickel mineral, now known as **nickeline**, for a copper ore. When this mineral failed to yield

copper, they named it *Kupfernickel*, meaning "Old Nick's copper". Nickel is also found in other ores, such as **garnierite** and **pentlandite**. This element is one of the most useful metals, with a number of applications. Because **pure nickel** does not rust, it is used to coat objects to make

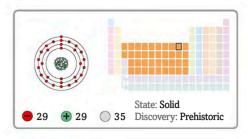




them look like silver – a trick still used to make inexpensive ornamental objects. Nickel is also mixed with copper to make an alloy called cupronickel. This is used as plating on **propellers** and other metallic parts of ships, as the alloy does not corrode in seawater. The same alloy is used

in most of the world's silver-coloured coins. Nickel is used in the strings of **electric** guitars. This element is added to chromium to make an alloy called nichrome. Wires made of this alloy conduct heat very well, so are used in **toasters**.

Cu Copper





Copper is a soft, bendy metal that is an excellent conductor of electricity and heat.

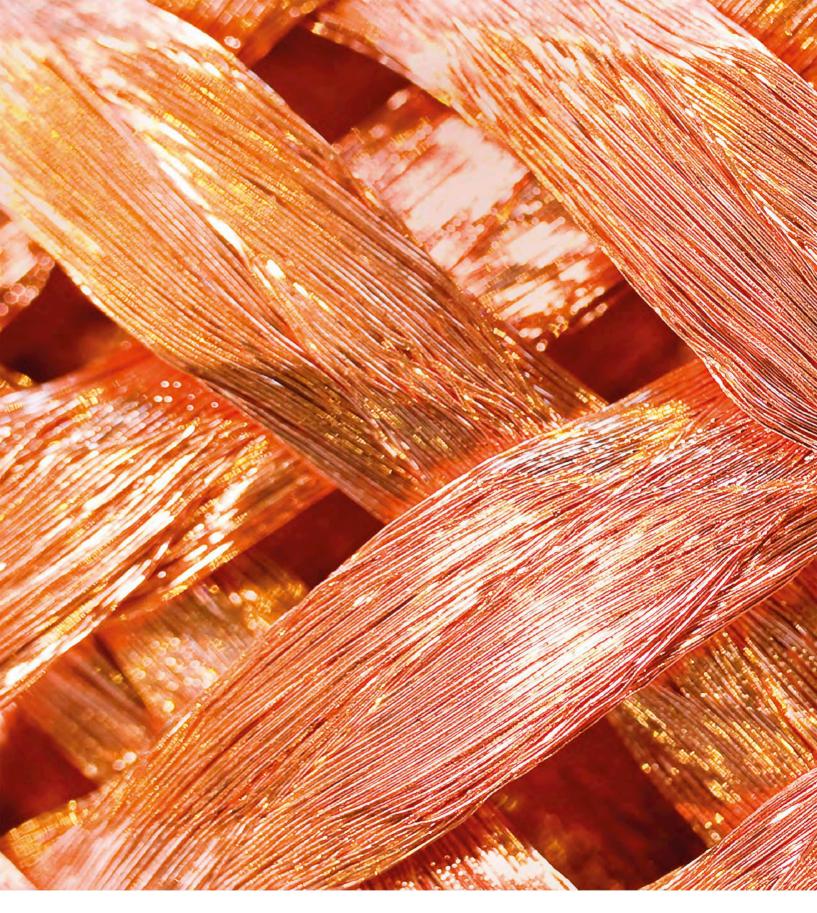
Although it is one of the few elements found pure in nature, most of it exists in ores such as **chalcopyrite**. Other copper minerals, such as **malachite** and azurite, are brightly coloured.

Copper is the only metal that has a reddish colour in its pure form. **Pure copper** is mainly used as **wires** in electrical equipment. Copper wire wrapped around an iron core and then electrified helps create an **electromagnet**. Because they can be switched on or off, electromagnets can

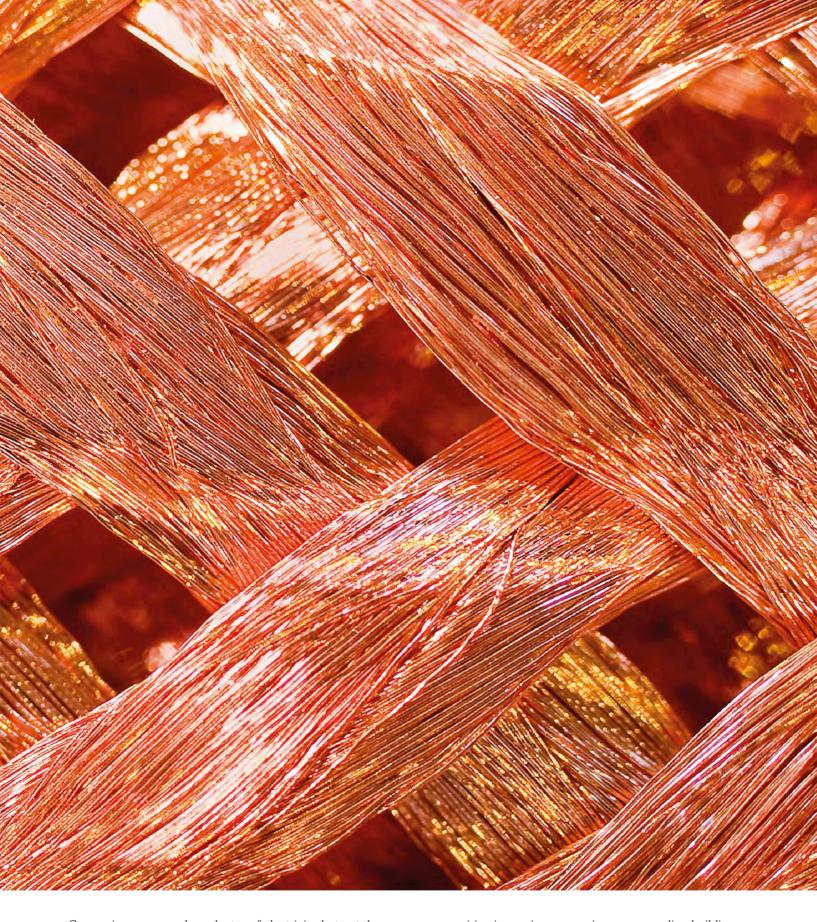


be magnetic as and when they are needed. They can be much more powerful than normal magnets and can lift heavy objects. Pure copper does not rust, but it reacts with air over time to form a layer of grey-green copper carbonate called verdigris. This can be seen on copper statues, such as the

Statue of Liberty. Copper is often mixed with other metals to produce tougher alloys. Bronze, a copper-tin alloy, is more durable than pure copper and has been used since ancient times. Brass, a copper-zinc alloy, is used in musical instruments, such as **trumpets**.

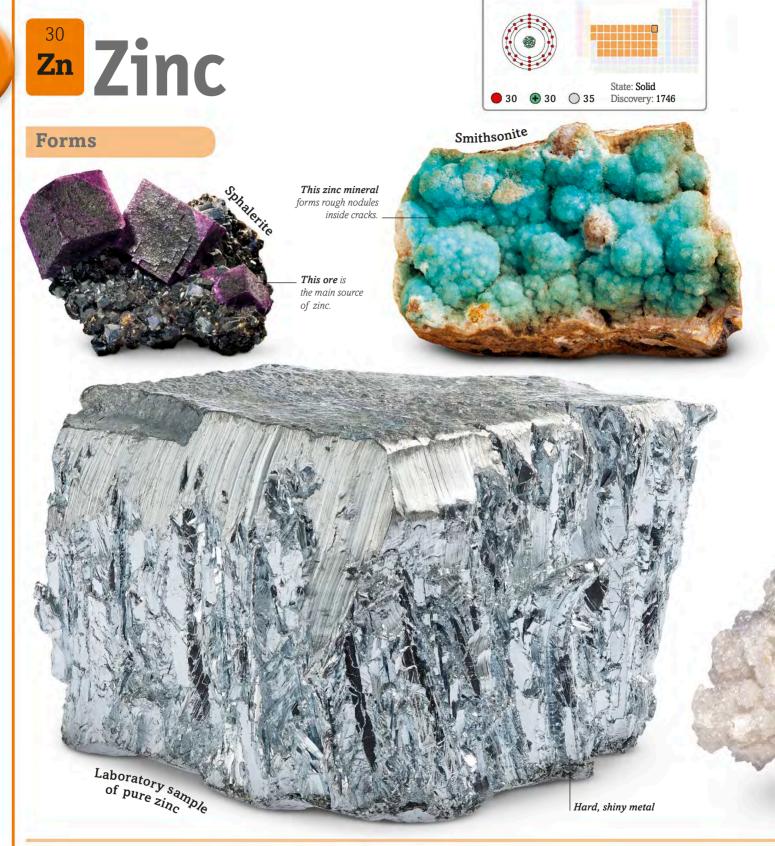


COPPER WIRES Not much thicker than a human hair, these copper wires are twisted together and woven into a tight bundle. One of the main uses for these wires is to shield a thicker copper wire that transmits a signal to a television. As the signal carries pictures and sounds in the form of electrical currents, the wires wrapped around it prevent interference from other electrical sources nearby.



Copper is a very good conductor of electricity, but not the best; silver is better. However, copper is more widely used because it is much cheaper to find and purify. Each year, about 15 million tonnes of pure copper is produced, and more than half of it is used to make electrical components, such as this mesh. Today, more than a billion kilometres of

copper wiring is running unseen in power supplies, buildings, and electronics. Copper is now the most common electrical metal, but it has a long history. It was the first element to be refined from ores in large amounts about 7,000 years ago in the region that is now Iraq. Today, Bingham Canyon in Utah, USA, is the world's largest copper mine.



Zinc was used in India and China hundreds of years before the German chemist Andreas Marggraf identified it as a new element in the 18th century. This element is a rare transition metal that is never pure in nature, but is found in many minerals.

The mineral **sphalerite**, containing zinc sulfide, is the major source of **pure zinc**. Another principal mineral, **hemimorphite**, contains zinc and silicon. Zinc is essential in our diet. We consume it from food such as cheese and sunflower seeds. Zinc compounds have a wide



range of applications. For example, a compound of zinc and oxygen called zinc oxide is used in **medical tape** and sunscreen. Zinc oxide can also be used to toughen the rubber used in **boots** and tyres. A compound of zinc and sulfur called zinc sulfide is used to make some

paints that glow in the dark. When pure zinc is exposed to air, the metal reacts with oxygen to form a protective layer of an oxide. This coating can prevent objects covered in zinc, such as **bridges**, from corroding easily.



The samples of rock brought back from the Moon by astronauts in NASA's Apollo missions contained higher levels of yttrium than rocks on Earth. This element is never found in pure form in nature, but small traces of it are present in many minerals, including

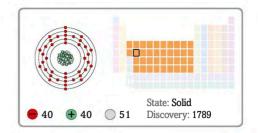
xenotime and **monazite**. Yttrium was discovered in a compound in 1794 by the Finnish chemist Johan Gadolin, but it wasn't isolated until 1828. Other yttrium compounds have since been found in vegetables, including cabbage, and in seeds of woody plants. In

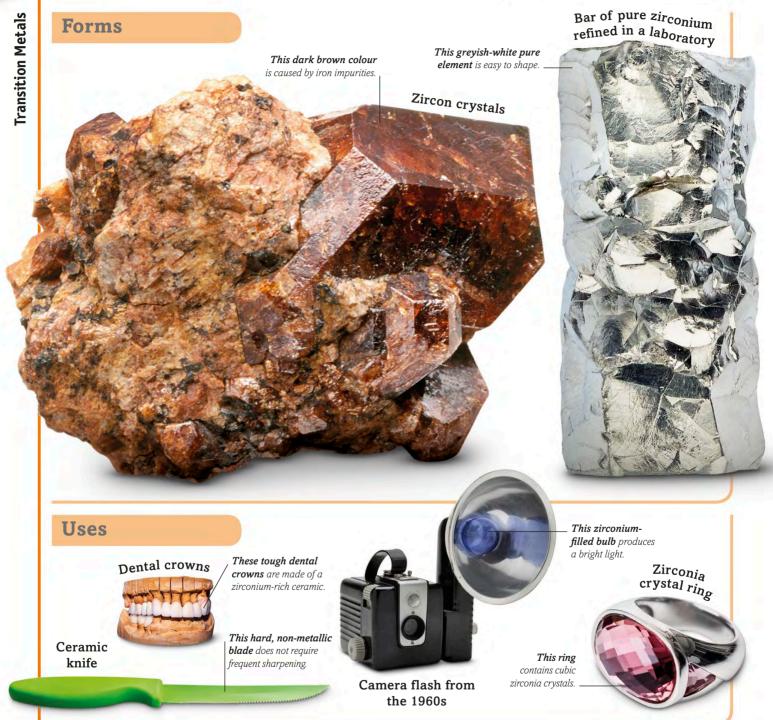


LED lamps, yttrium converts blue light to other colours. Many **lasers** use an artificial mixture of yttrium and aluminium inside a silicon-rich crystal called garnet. Powerful yttrium lasers are used for treating some skin infections, as well as by dentists during tooth surgery. A radioactive

form of this element has medical applications. Yttrium is added to the glass in a **camera lens** to make it tough. Yttrium compounds are also used in **superconductors** – materials that conduct electricity easily when cooled to very low temperatures.

Zirconium

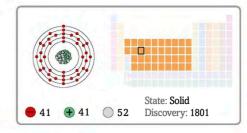


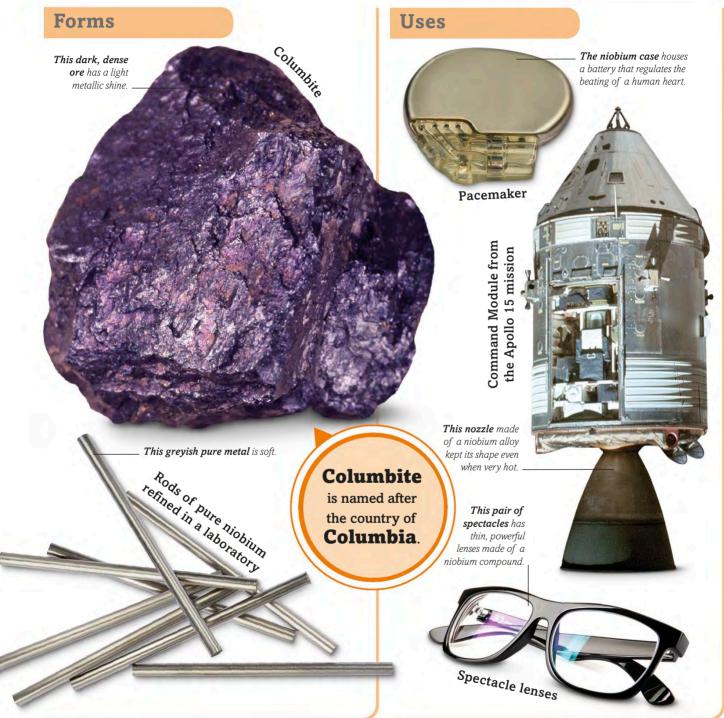


This element is named after the mineral zircon, which means "golden" in Persian, a reference to the golden-brown colour of its crystals. The Swedish chemist Jacob Berzelius was the first person to isolate pure zirconium, in 1824. Today, however, the element is mostly used

in the form of the compound zirconium dioxide, or zirconia. Powdered zirconia is heated to produce a hard glass-like ceramic, which is used to create dental crowns and sharp ceramic knives. Powdered zirconia also forms sparkling zirconia crystals that look like diamonds.

Niobium Niobium





Niobium is so similar to the metal tantalum that the two were wrongly thought to be the same element for almost 40 years. The mineral columbite is the main source of this shiny metal. Niobium is not found naturally in its pure form. When extracted, it has many uses. As the element

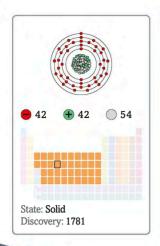
does not react adversely in the human body, it is used in implants, such as **pacemakers**. Niobium also does not expand when hot, so it is used to make parts of rockets, such as the one on the **Command Module** from NASA's Apollo 15 spacecraft that went to the Moon in 1971.

Molybdenum



Molybdenum gets its unusual name from the Greek word *molybdos*, which means "lead". Miners once mistook molybdenite, a dark mineral containing this metal, for an ore of lead. This element is much harder than lead, so it is easy to distinguish

between these two elements when they are pure. Molybdenite is soft and slippery, and it is the main molybdenum ore. **Pure molybdenum** is mainly used to make alloys that are resistant to corrosion. These are lightweight so are ideal for constructing **bike frames**, but

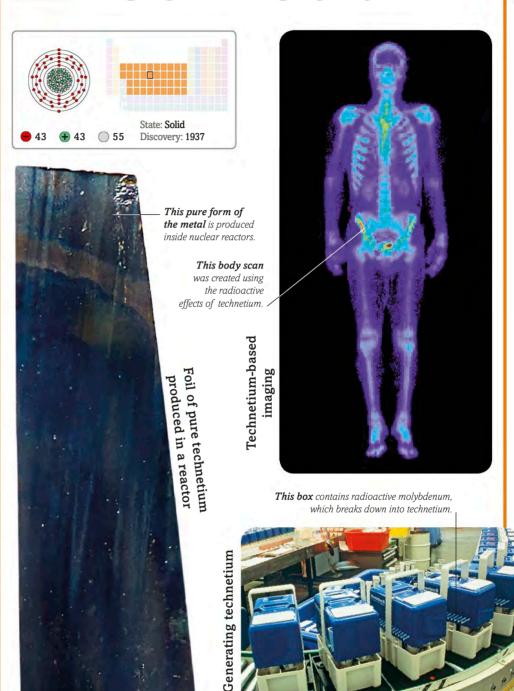






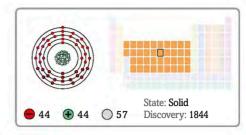
are hard enough for making sturdy tools, too. Molybdenum alloys are used in the latest designs of supercars, such as the **Vencer Sarthe**.

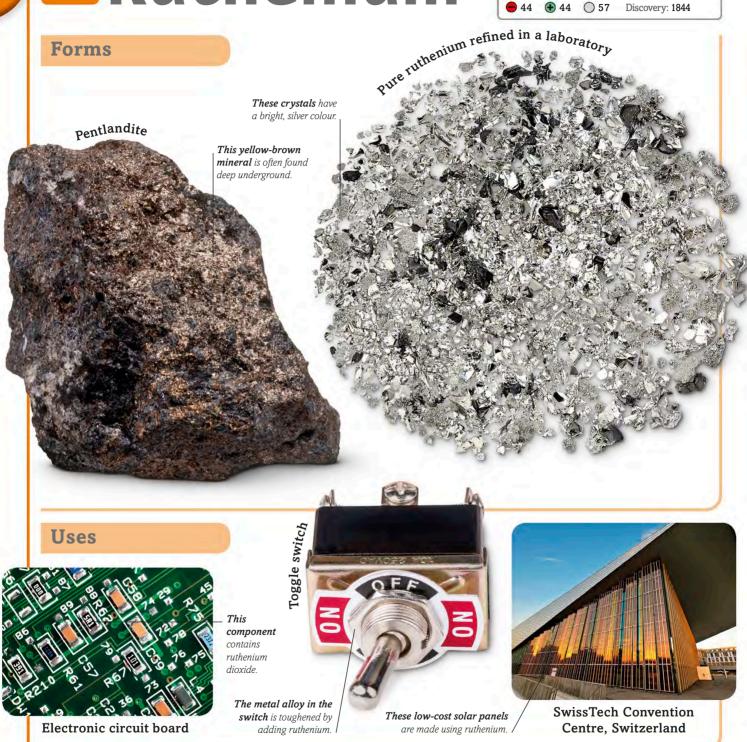
Technetium



Technetium was the first element to be produced artificially by researchers. It is named after the Greek word for artificial, *tekhnetos*. Technetium does not exist in nature: any of its atoms that once existed on Earth broke down millions of years ago. Tiny amounts of this element were discovered in the waste produced by early nuclear reactors. Technetium is the lightest radioactive element. It is used extensively in **medical imaging**. It is injected into a patient's body, where it emits radiation for a short while. Some machines use this radiation to show bones clearly.

Ruthenium

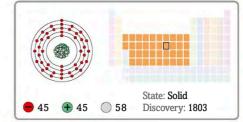




Ruthenium is named after *Ruthenia*, an old Latin name for Russia. This rare metal is found in the mineral **pentlandite**, and its **pure form** is commonly extracted from this ore. A compound called ruthenium dioxide is used in several components in **electronic**

circuits, including resistors and microchips for computers and other digital devices. Adding a small amount of ruthenium makes softer metals, such as platinum and palladium, much tougher. Moving parts in devices such as **switches** benefit from this property.

Rhodium 45 Rhodium





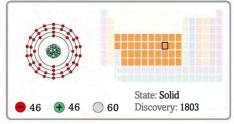
The rosy red colour of one of its compounds inspired the name rhodium.

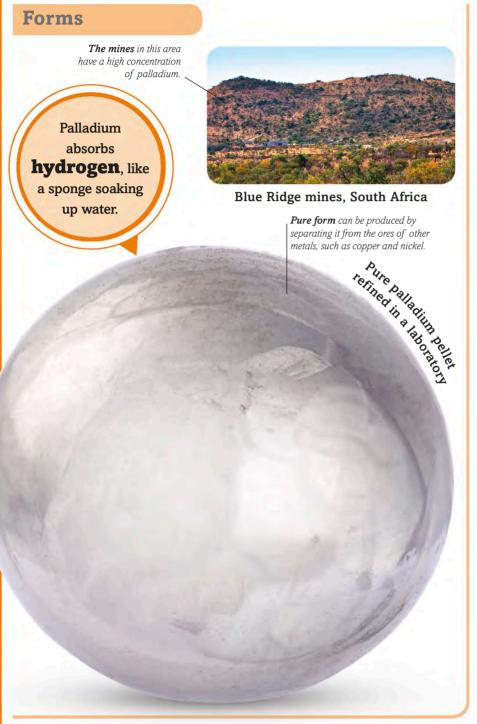
The Greek word *rhodon* means "rose-coloured". Rhodium is unreactive and does not form compounds easily. It is a rare metal. Most of the **pure form** is extracted when platinum

is mined. Pure rhodium is hard and is used to toughen precious **jewellery**, mirrors, and optical devices, such as **microscopes**. It is mainly used in the production of catalytic convertors for cars. **Fibreglass**, which is often found in protective gear – like helmets – also contains rhodium.

Fibreglass production

Palladium







Palladium is a rare, precious metal: it is 10 times rarer than silver and twice as rare as gold. Like these metals, palladium has a shiny surface and does not corrode easily. Palladium is found **pure** in nature, but it also has a few rare minerals, such as braggite. Of its

many applications, the element's main use is in **catalytic converters**, which are devices used in vehicles to convert poisonous exhaust gases into less harmful ones. A compound called palladium chloride is used in **carbon monoxide detectors**. Because the element is



precious, it is used to make **commemorative coins** in some countries. Palladium is alloyed with steel to make it more resistant to corrosion. These alloys are used to make **surgical tools** and expensive musical instruments, such as some **flutes**. Palladium is often mixed

with gold to form an alloy called white gold, which is used in jewellery. Some fountain pens have **nibs** decorated with palladium. The element is also used in **glucometer test strips** so that patients can check the level of glucose in their blood.



Silver gets its symbol "Ag" from its Latin name argentum, which means "shiny white".

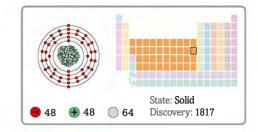
It is considered a precious metal because its pure form has a grey shine that does not corrode quickly, and it stays untarnished if cleaned regularly. Silver can be found pure in nature, but mostly it is mined from ores, such as **pyrargyrite** and **acanthite**. Because this element is valuable and can be moulded easily, pure silver was used historically to make **coins**. This metal is also ideal for making **bracelets** and settings for gems. Some people even use



flattened **silver foil** to decorate food. **Silver spoons** and forks were the only pieces of cutlery that did not create a nasty metallic flavour in the mouth in the days before the invention of stainless steel. Silver conducts electricity better than copper, and is used

in some **circuit boards**. **Silver nitrate** (a compound of silver, nitrogen, and oxygen) is a mild disinfectant used in some anti-bacterial soaps. Silver forms light-sensitive compounds with chlorine (used in **sunglasses**) and bromine (used in old **photography plates**).

Cadmium Cadmium

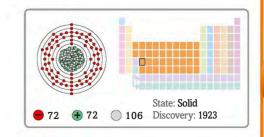




Cadmium is a highly toxic metal, and is **known to cause cancer**. This rare element is found in the ore **greenockite**, but it is mostly obtained as a by-product of zinc extraction. Cadmium was discovered in 1817 from a mineral called calamine. Today, this metal is

mainly used in conjunction with nickel in rechargeable batteries. The compound cadmium oxide was once used in preparing red paints, but not anymore because of its toxicity. Cadmium is also used to create lasers for use in powerful microscopes.

Hafnium Hafnium

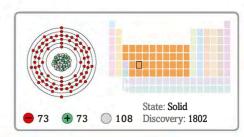


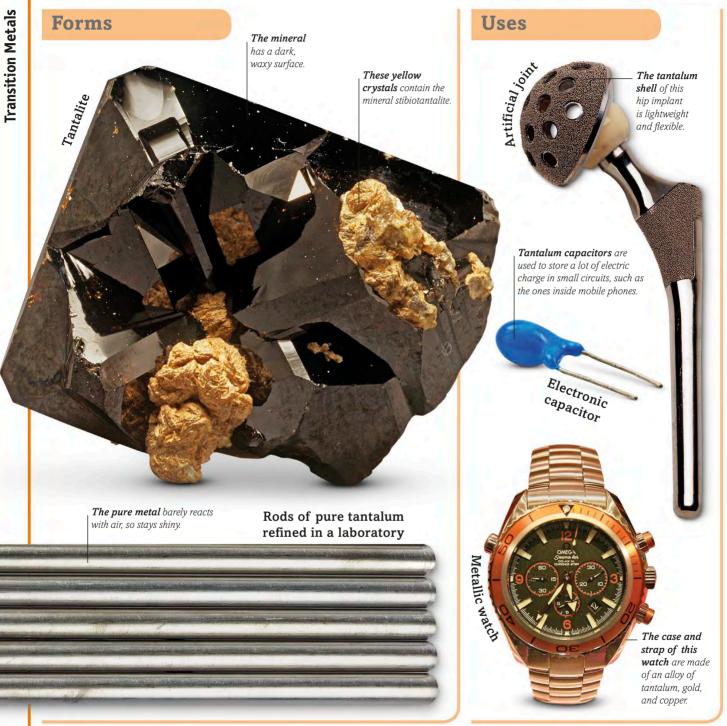


Hafnium is named after *Hafnia*, the Latin word for the city of Copenhagen in Denmark. It took a long time to distinguish hafnium from zirconium because the two elements are present together in crystals of the mineral **zircon** and their atoms are

similar sizes. Hafnium is used in powerful **cutters** that pierce metallic objects with a hot stream of sparks. It is also used to make ultra-small electronics — only a few millionths of a millimetre wide — in **microchips**.

Tantalum





Tantalum is a hard metal named after Tantalus, a man from Greek mythology who was punished by the gods. It is extracted from a rare mineral called tantalite. This tough metal is not harmful to the human body, so it is used to make artificial joints and

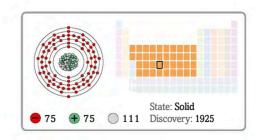
other body implants. Tantalum powder is used in **capacitors** – devices used in electronic circuits to store electricity. This strong metal toughens **watches** made of softer, precious metals. Tantalum is also used to create strong turbine blades that do not corrode.



Tungsten has the highest melting point of any metal: it turns to liquid at a searing 3,414°C (6,177.2°F). It is a very dense metal, and its name comes from the Swedish phrase for "heavy stone". This metal is usually obtained from the mineral **wolframite**. A compound called

tungsten carbide is used to harden objects such as **drill bits**. Tungsten's high melting point allows it to be used in the filaments of **light bulbs**. This element is also useful in producing weights, such as **sinkers** used with fishing lures.

Realium





of any element.

Rhenium is very rare in nature: only one atom out of every billion in Earth's crust is a rhenium atom. Discovered in Germany in 1925, and named after the Rhine river – it was the last stable, non-radioactive element to be found. Rhenium has a very high melting

point, and can stay solid at extreme temperatures. This allows alloys made of this element to be used in very hot conditions, such as those inside the tubes of **X-ray machines**, as well those in the exhaust nozzles of rockets and the jet engines of fighter planes.

This plane has jet

engines containing a heat-proof rhenium alloy.

Osmium



Fingerprint



electron microscope (TEM) image

Transmission

Osmium oxide is used to highlight objects inside a cell.



Black osmium oxide powder clings to oily fingerprints.

The needle of this old record player is made of osmium.

Record player

Fountain pen



The nib of this pen moves smoothly because of its hardy osmium alloy.

Osmium is the densest of all naturally occurring elements: 250 ml (8.5 fl oz) of this metal (in its liquid form) weighs 5.5 kg (12 lb). This rare element is found in the ore osmiridium. Pure osmium reacts with oxygen in the air to form a poisonous oxide, so the metal is used safely

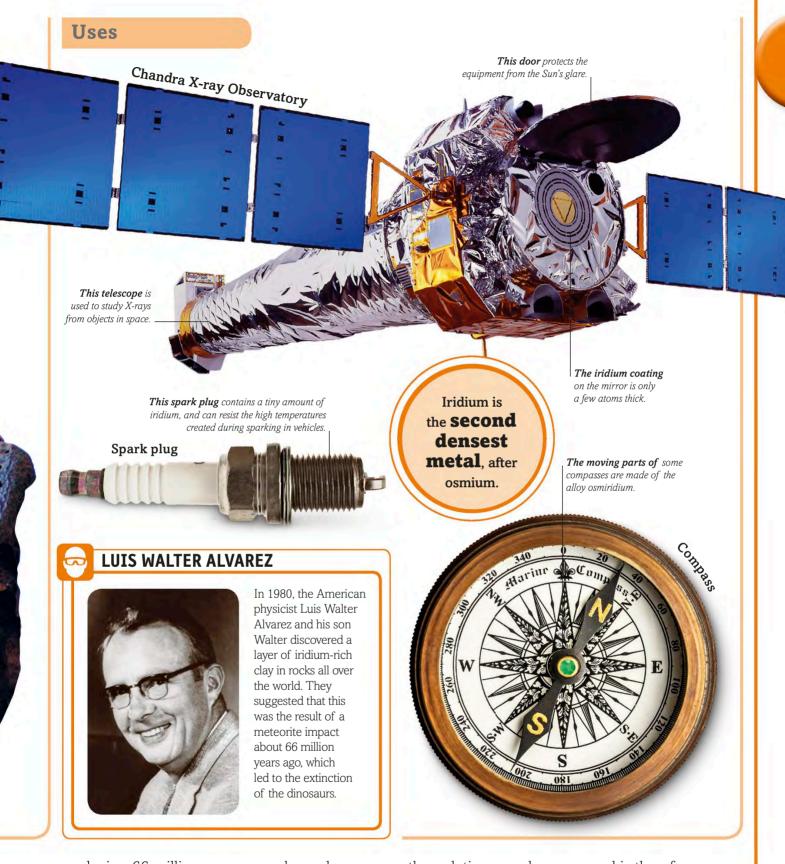
by combining it with other elements or alloys. A red osmium oxide stains cells so they can be seen clearly under a powerful **microscope**, while a black oxide powder allows **fingerprints** to be revealed in crime investigations. A hard osmium alloy is used in **fountain pen** nibs.



Iridium is the rarest natural element on Earth: there is one iridium atom out of every billion atoms in Earth's rocks. This dense metal can be found in its pure form in nature as well as in other common ores that contain nickel and copper. Iridium is present

in **meteorites** and other space rocks. A layer of iridium-rich clay is found in Earth's crust all over the world, especially in the **Badlands of South Dakota, USA**. Scientists believe this small quantity of iridium in our planet's crust was deposited by the dust from an

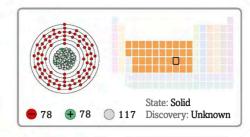
0.00047% iridium.



explosion 66 million years ago when a large meteorite hit our planet. The applications of this element include coating the mirror of NASA's **Chandra X-ray Observatory**, an Earth-orbiting telescope that studies X-rays from distant stars. Iridium is more durable

than platinum and copper, and is therefore preferred over these metals for use in spark plugs. Iridium is also mixed with osmium to make an alloy called osmiridium, which is used in **compasses** and put in nibs for some fountain pens to make them hardy.

Platinum Platinum





Spanish explorers first found platinum in the mines of South America in the 1700s.

They obtained a whitish substance that the locals living near there called *platina*, meaning "little silver". This precious metal has a silvery white shine. Platinum rarely reacts with other elements,

even at high temperatures. This makes it difficult to extract from its ores, such as **sperrylite**. **Pure platinum** does not corrode or tarnish. It is, however, not easy to shape or mould, so use of platinum was limited to the making of simple jewellery and **watches**. By the 20th century,



more applications were discovered. Platinum can be used in place of silver to generate photographic prints, and in place of gold for making **dental fillings**. Today, platinum plays an important role in various technologies. For example, it is used in **fuel cells** – devices that

generate electricity by combining hydrogen and oxygen. These cells do not need to be recharged like other batteries. Powerful drugs for treating cancer contain this element, while **stents** made of pure platinum help heal damaged blood vessels.



People were making gold ornaments more than 6,000 years ago. This was many centuries before they learned how to purify copper, iron, and other metals. Gold is believed by many to be the first metal element to be identified. It is a dense, unreactive metal with a distinctive deep

yellow colour. Gold is naturally **pure** and seldom makes compounds in nature; the compound in the mineral ore **calaverite** is an exception. **Pure gold** found in nature may form nuggets but mostly is found as tiny specks embedded in rocks. Gold miners crush up these rocks and wash out the



gold dust with water or strong acids. The applications for gold include heat shields in **astronaut's visors**. This metal has always been seen as valuable and many ancient artefacts, such as the **3,300-year-old death mask** of Egyptian pharaoh Tutankhamun, were forged

from it. Some of the earliest coins, found in Turkey, were made of it. Gold is used to cover important buildings, such as Thailand's **Wat Phrathat Doi Suthep** temple. This precious metal is most commonly used today in **jewellery** or decorations.

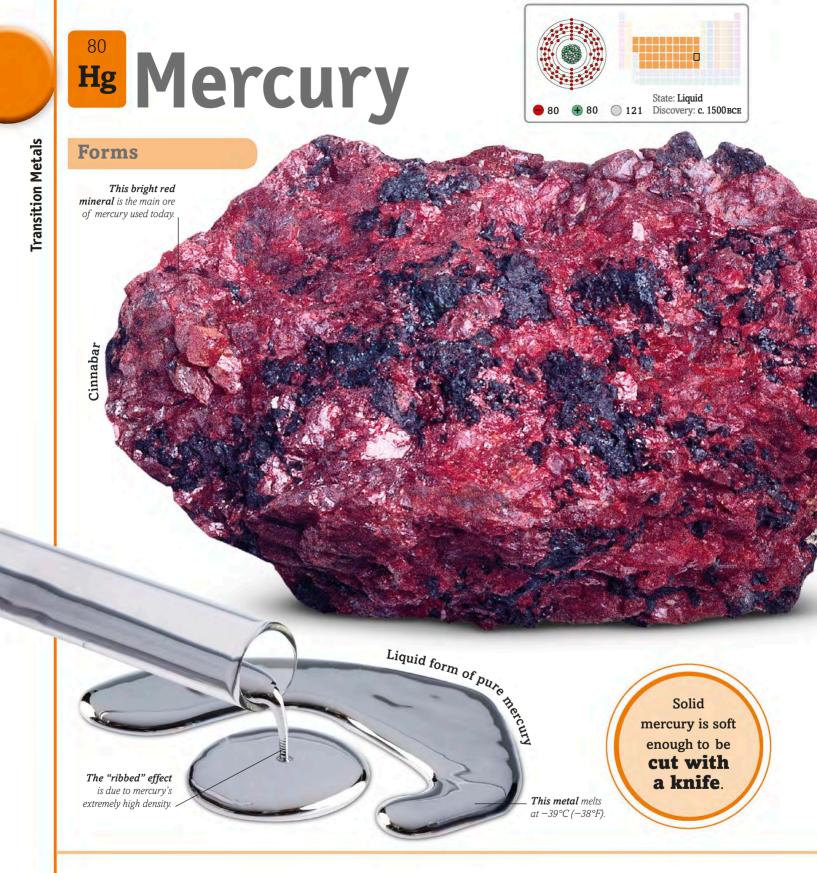


GOLDEN BUDDHA A precious statue of Buddha with one thousand eyes and one thousand hands stands in Long Son Pagoda, a temple in Nha Trang, Vietnam. The Buddha is depicted as holding a range of sacred objects, including scrolls and white lotus flowers. This statue is completely covered in a layer of pure gold, and it draws in hundreds of devotees from across the world.



Although humans have discovered many strong metals and useful elements, gold has remained one of the most valuable. Before people knew what it was, they saw glittering gold dust in river beds or dug large gold nuggets out from rocks. They found that gold has many valuable qualities: it is soft enough to hammer into any shape and can be melted down for moulding

into ornaments. Best of all, its gleaming golden colour never fades away. Ancient cultures prized items made of gold: in ancient Egypt, gold was used to make coins as well as to cap the tops of pyramids. Gold is, however, so rare that if all the world's mined gold were forged into a cube, it would fit inside the penalty area of a soccer pitch.



Mercury is the only metal that is liquid at room temperature. Along with water, it is one of the few liquids found naturally on Earth's surface. Pure mercury forms around volcanoes where the heat separates it from its minerals, such as cinnabar. This red mineral has been

used for many centuries: ancient Romans roasted cinnabar to release a liquid they called *hydrargyrum*, meaning "silver water". This was the element mercury. It was later known as quicksilver because of how fast it flowed as a stream of liquid. This metal is very poisonous:

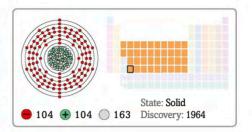


it can damage organs and nerves if inhaled or swallowed. As a result, the use of this metal is carefully monitored today. Mercury is used in some batteries, some **thermometers**, and in low-energy, **compact fluorescent light (CFL) bulbs**. Its compounds are used to prepare strong, **red paints**. Until the early 18th century, mercury was used in **pills** for treating some common ailments. It gradually fell out of use when it was found to be toxic. The first accurate **barometers** also contained this liquid, but such devices are rarely seen today.

Rutherfordium



Ernest Rutherford



Rutherfordium was the first superheavy **element to be discovered**. In this type of element, each atom has 104 or more protons in its nucleus. It is named after the New Zealand scientist **Ernest Rutherford**, who, in 1913. suggested that every atom has a nucleus, or core. Pure rutherfordium is synthesized by researchers in a laboratory.

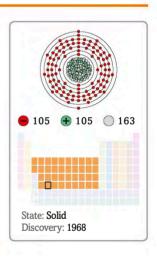
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Dubnium



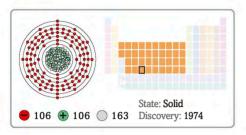
Albert Ghiorso





It took scientists nearly 30 years to agree on a name for this element. Dubnium was finally named after the Russian city of Dubna, where the first atoms of this artificial, radioactive element were created, in 1968. However, a team of American scientists led by **Albert Ghiorso** also produced samples of the element at the same time. This radioactive element has 12 isotopes, or forms, with different numbers of neutrons.

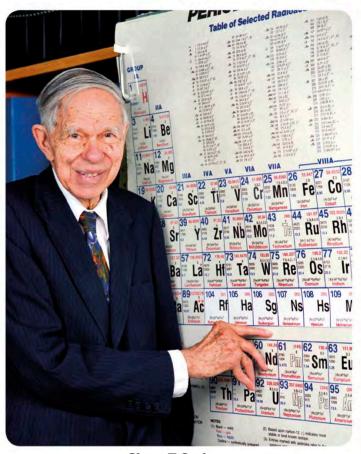
Seaborgium Seaborgium



Atoms of seaborgium break apart in about three minutes, so little is known about it. Scientists think it may be a metal. The element was isolated in 1974 in a machine called the Super Heavy Ion Linear Accelerator at the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory. It was named after the US scientist Glenn T Seaborg.

This huge machine was used to discover five new elements.

This giant tube forms part of the Super Heavy Ion Linear Accelerator, which is a type of particle accelerator – a machine in which atoms are smashed together.



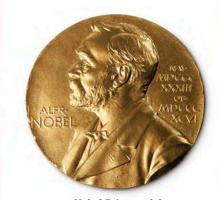
Glenn T Seaborg



Super Heavy Ion Linear Accelerator, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, California, USA

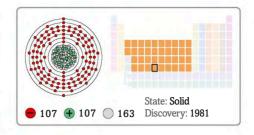
NOBEL PRIZE IN CHEMISTRY

Glenn T Seaborg and his fellow US researcher Edwin McMillan were awarded the Nobel Prize for Chemistry in 1951 for their work in creating neptunium. This was the first element to be isolated that was heavier than uranium – the heaviest natural element.



Nobel Prize medal

Bh Bohrium



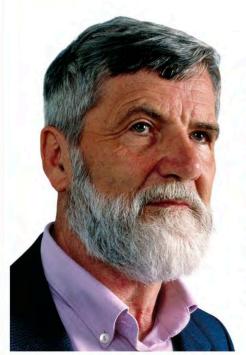


Niels Bohr

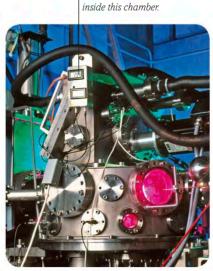
Bohrium is an artificial element named after the Danish scientist Niels Bohr

This was to honour his model of the structure of atoms' electron shells. Bohrium was first produced by firing chromium atoms at bismuth atoms in a particle accelerator (a machine in which atoms are smashed together). Atoms of this metal are unstable: half of any sample of bohrium atoms breaks apart in 61 seconds. As a result, it is not very well understood.

108 Hassium

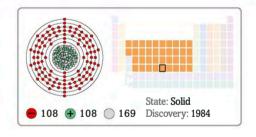


Peter Armbruster



Hassium was produced

A chamber at Centre for Heavy Ion Research, Darmstadt, Germany

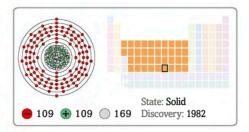


Scientists think hassium is a metal, but they have not been able to produce enough of its atoms to study it in any detail. Hassium is very radioactive, and most of its atoms break apart within a few seconds. This element is named after the German state of Hesse, the location of the Centre for Heavy Ion **Research**, where hassium was first created artificially by a team led by the German physicist Peter Armbruster.

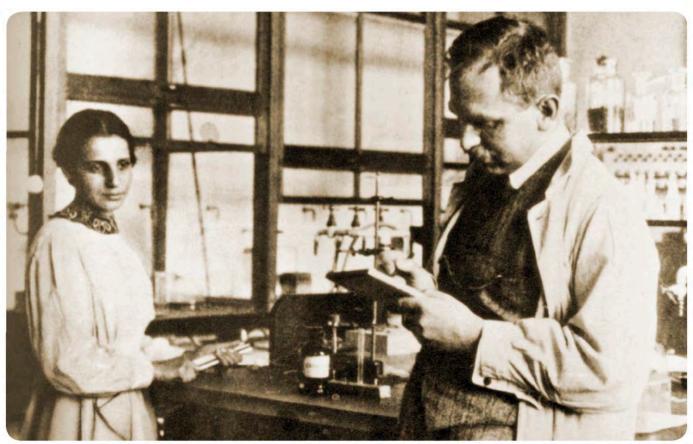
Meitnerium



Meitner Haus building, Humboldt University, Germany

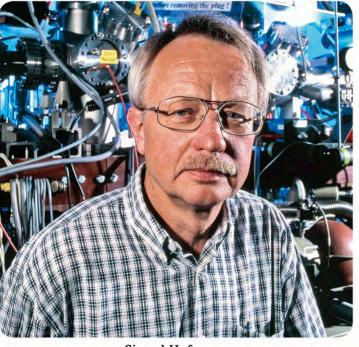


Researchers think meitnerium might be the densest of all elements. It is very unstable, and even the atoms of its most stable isotope, or form, break apart in a matter of seconds. Meitnerium is named after the Austrian physicist Lise Meitner, to honour her achievements in physics. Several universities, such as **Humboldt University** in Berlin, Germany, also have buildings in her name.

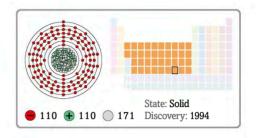


Lise Meitner (left) works with the German chemist Otto Hahn

Darmstadtium



Sigurd Hofmann

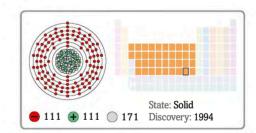


This artificial element is named after the German city of Darmstadt – the home of the Institute for Heavy Ion Research where this element was first produced. A team led by the German physicist Sigurd **Hofmann** created darmstadtium by smashing nickel atoms into lead atoms in a particle accelerator (a machine in which atoms are smashed together).

Roentgenium



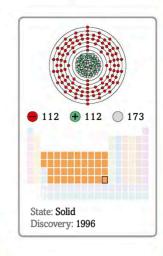
Wilhem Röntgen



Scientists believe that this metal shares many characteristics with precious metals, such as gold and silver.

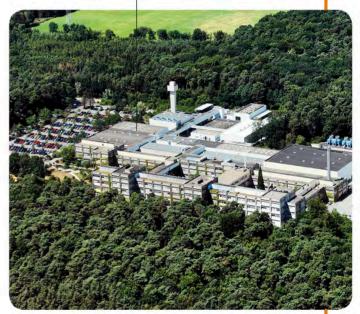
However, its atoms break apart within seconds, so this has not yet been confirmed. Roentgenium was created in Darmstadt, Germany. It was named after Wilhelm Röntgen, the German scientist who discovered X-rays in 1895.

Copernicium Copernicium





This German research institute is where copernicium was discovered.



Heavy Ion Research Centre, Germany

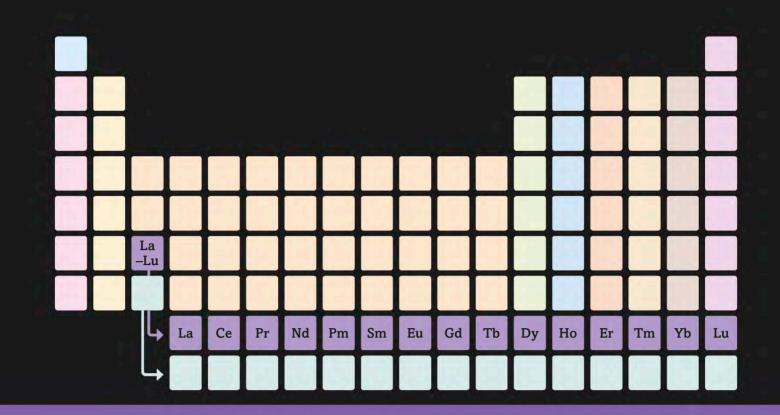
The atoms of this radioactive element survive only for a few minutes, before breaking down.

Copernicium is created in particle accelerators by smashing together atoms of lead and zinc. Only a few atoms of this artificial element have ever been produced. Copernicium is named after Nicolaus Copernicus,

the Polish astronomer who theorized that our planet orbits the Sun.



Europium's (Eu) colour changes when left in the air.



Lanthanides

This set is named after lanthanum, the first element in this series. The name "rare earth metals" is also given to these elements because they were discovered mixed together in complex minerals in Earth's crust, and were thought to be uncommon. However, they are actually not rare but abundant. These metals – between barium (Ba) and hafnium (Hf) – should fit between the alkaline earth metals and the transition metals, but they are normally shown underneath the main table to save on space.



Atomic structure
Atoms of every element in
this group have two outer
electrons. The lanthanides
have large atoms, all with
six electron shells.



Physical properties
The lanthanides are dense,
shiny metals, which tarnish
easily when exposed to
air. They do not conduct
electricity very well.

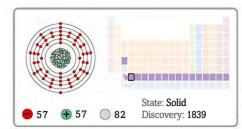


Chemical properties
These elements react slowly
with oxygen (0) at room
temperature, but the
reactions speed up
when heated.



Compounds
Many lanthanides
form compounds with
oxygen called oxides.
These are often used
in lasers and magnets.

Lanthanum





Molten lanthanum

Although the word "lanthanum" means "to lie hidden", it is more abundant than most metals. For example, it is three times more common than lead. This element was discovered in the mineral cerite in 1839. However, it took chemists almost another

vellow colour

in its light.

100 years to find a way to purify the metal. Today, the mineral **bastnasite** is a source of pure lanthanum. The element's applications range from its use in film studio lights and lens-making to refining petroleum.

Camera lens

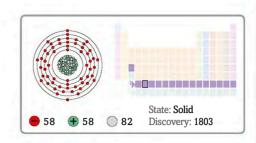
In its molten

state, lanthanum

is used to smooth rough diamonds.

Ce Cerium

Cerium was the first of the lanthanides to be discovered. It is named after the dwarf planet Ceres, which was discovered two years before the element was isolated. Cerium is highly toxic when **pure**, but safer cerium compounds have some uses. The main use of cerium is in making phosphors, which are chemicals that produce lights of different colours. Phosphors are present in **flatscreen TVs** and bulbs.







The inside of this screen is coated with cerium-containing phosphors, which emit red, green, and blue light.

Kitchen spatula

The pure form of the metal tarnishes on contact with air.

This red colour comes from a compound called cerium sulfide.

Pr Praseodymium



Laboratory sample of

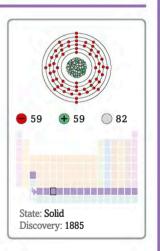
pure praseodymium

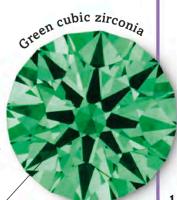
Part of this element's name comes from *prasinos*, the Greek word for "green".

Normally a grey colour when pure, the element reacts slowly on contact with air to form a green coating. Praseodymium compounds give a yellow colour to glass and heat-resistant **ceramics**, and provide a green colour to some **artificial jewels**. This element also boosts the strength of magnets that contain it.



This artificial gem gets its green colour from tiny amounts of a compound of praseodymium and oxygen.

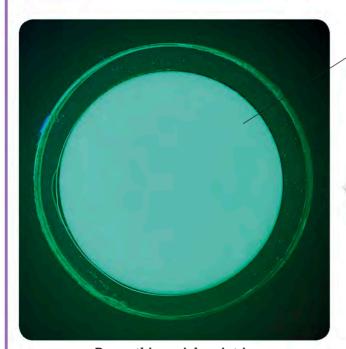




Neodymium 1 Neodymium



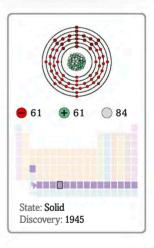
Pm Promethium



Promethium-rich paint in a tin seen from above

This paint glows as a result of radioactive promethium.

This missile uses radioactive promethium for electrical power.



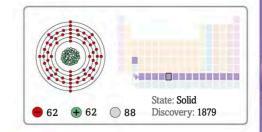
Missile

Promethium is the rarest lanthanide element.

Any promethium that was in Earth's rocks decayed billions of years ago. Promethium is therefore produced artificially in nuclear reactors. Being very radioactive, it is used in some **missiles**, because it converts this radioactivity into electrical power. The addition of promethium also makes some **paints** glow in the dark.



Samarium



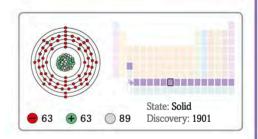
Guitar pickups

This element is named after the mineral samarskite from which it was first purified.

However, another lanthanide-rich mineral called monazite is the main source of this element today. Samarium is mixed with cobalt to make permanent magnets that are often used in **electric guitars**.









Europium was named after the continent of Europe. However, most of the world's supply of the element comes from the USA and China, where the mineral bastnasite is mined for the extraction of pure europium. A compound called europium oxide is used in euro and **British bank notes**. When placed under ultraviolet (UV) light, the compound gives off a red glow.

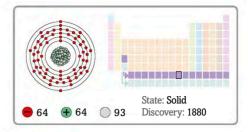
This red glow proves this note is real.

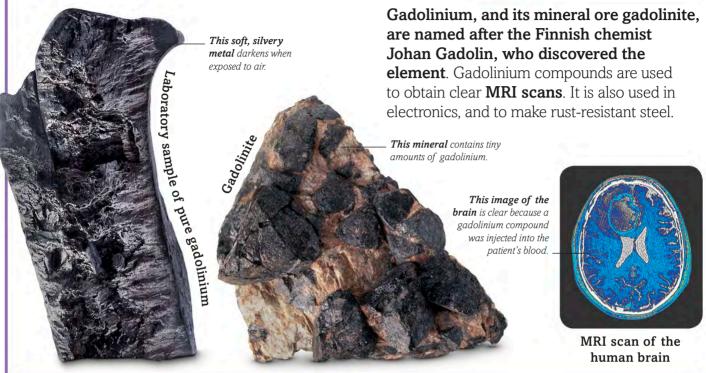
The crystals of this yellowish metal often have patches of dark oxides.



Section of British note under UV light

Gadolinium

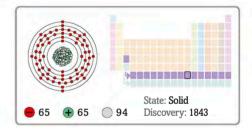






Terbium is named after the village of Ytterby in Sweden.

It is a silvery metal that can be obtained from the ore monazite. This element has only a few uses. **Pure terbium** is added to other metals to make powerful magnets used in sound-producing devices, such as the **SoundBug**TM. Its compounds are used to line **mercury lamps**.



SoundBug 7M $d_{e_{Vi_{Ce}}}$

, **This device** uses magnets to turn any flat surface, like a window, into a loudspeaker.

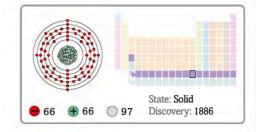
The mercury vapour in this lamp produces ultraviolet light when electrified, and this is turned into a bright yellow glow by terbium.



The pure metal is soft enough to be cut with a knife.

Laboratory sample of pure terbium

Dysprosium 66 Dysprosium



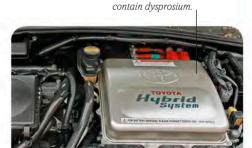


This mineral contains tiny amounts of dysprosium.

This pure metal remains shiny at room temperature.

Dysprosium reacts more easily with air and water than most other lanthanide metals.

Although it was discovered in 1886, it took until the 1950s to purify it. This metal is often used with neodymium to produce magnets that are used in **car batteries**, wind turbines, and generators.



Some hybrid car batteries

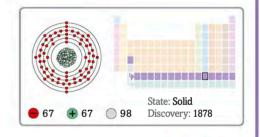
Hybrid car battery



Laboratory sample of pure dysprosium

Holmium

The Swedish chemist Per Teodor Cleve named holmium after the Swedish city of Stockholm. Pure holmium can produce a strong magnetic field and is therefore used in magnets. Its compounds are used to make lasers, and to colour glass and artificial jewels, such as **cubic zirconia**.



This artificial

gemstone is coloured

red by small amounts



Erbium



This glass contains erbium, which protects a welder's eyes from heat and bright light.





Pink pottery

Like terbium and ytterbium, erbium is also named after the Swedish village of Ytterby, near which it was discovered. This element does not occur in its pure form in nature, but it can be obtained from the mineral monazite. Many erbium compounds are pink in colour and are used to colour pottery and glass.

Thulium

Laboratory sample of pure thulium

State: Solid O 100 Discovery: 1879

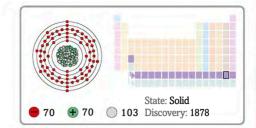
This machine emits X-rays using a very small amount of thulium.

This soft metal glows blue under ultraviolet (UV) light.



Thulium is the least abundant of all the lanthanide metals. It is used to create lasers that surgeons use to cut away damaged body tissue. Thulium also has a radioactive form that can produce X-rays: **portable X-ray machines** make use of this form.

Yb Ytterbium



Ytterbium tends to be more reactive than other lanthanide metals. It is stored in sealed containers to stop the metal from reacting with oxygen. The **pure metal** has only a few uses. A small amount of ytterbium is used in making steel, while its compounds are used in some lasers.

This bright, shiny metal can

be hammered into thin sheets.

Laboratory sample

of pure ytterbium

An ytterbium laser can cut through metals and plastics.

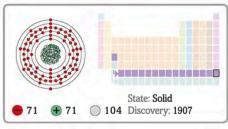


and densest lanthanide metal.

Lutetium

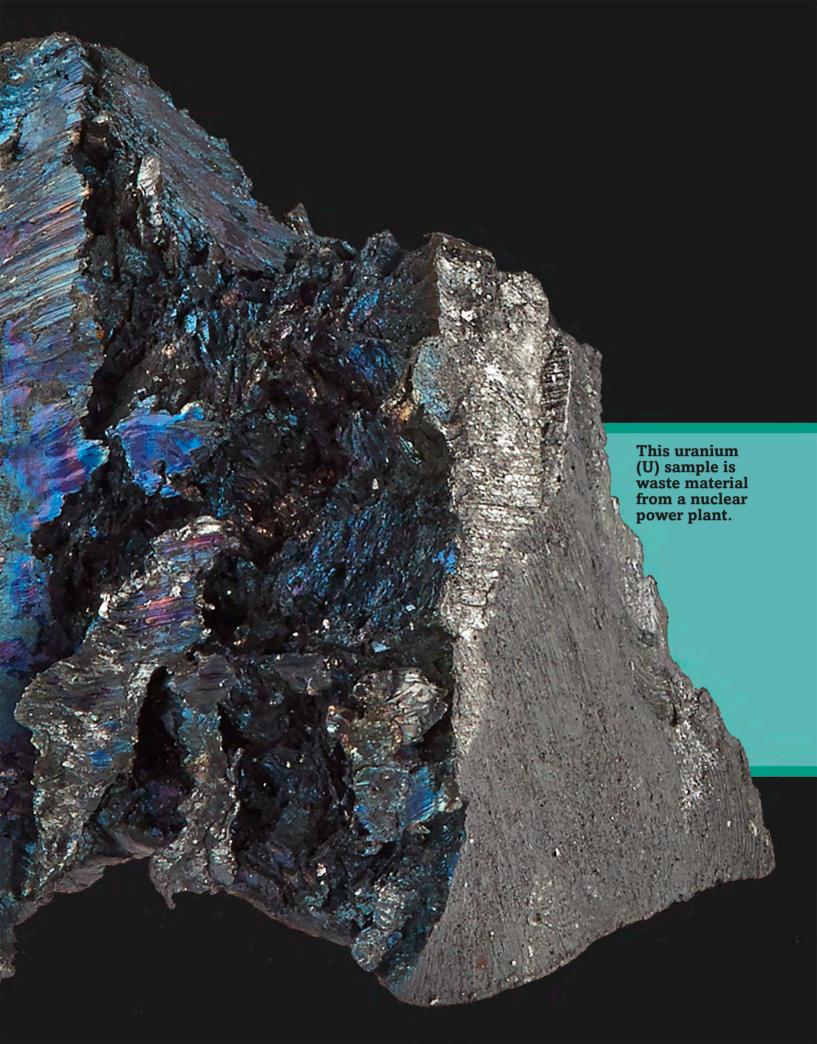


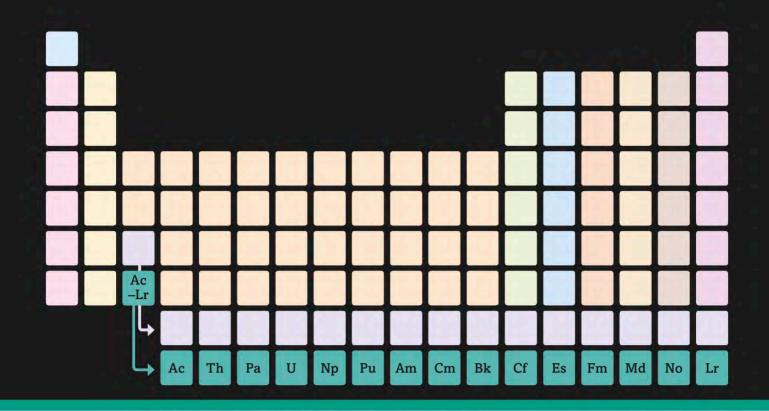
Lutetium was the last of the rare earth metals to be **discovered**. It is also the final member of the lanthanides. In its **pure form**, lutetium is very reactive and catches fire easily. It is rare and has few uses, mainly as a substance mixed with crude oil.



Some oil refineries use lutetium to break down crude oil to make fuels, such as petrol and diesel.







Actinides

These metals are named after actinium (Ac), the first member of the group. Although this group is often shown as the bottom row in the periodic table, to save space, they actually sit between radium (Ra), an alkali earth metal, and Rutherfodium (Rf), a transition metal. All the elements in this group are radioactive, and the final nine members are artificially produced in laboratories.



Atomic structure
All the elements in
this group have two
electrons in their outer
shell. Their atoms all have
seven electron shells.



Physical properties
Natural actinides are dense
metals with high melting
points. The physical properties
of most of the artificial
ones are unknown.



Chemical properties
The actinides are reactive metals and are never found in pure form in nature. They react easily with air, the halogens, and sulfur (S).



Compounds
Actinides form colourful compounds with halogens.
Most actinide ores also contain compounds of oxygen (0) called oxides.

Actinides

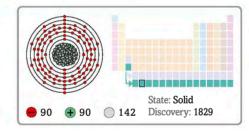




Neutron probe

Rare in nature, actinium is a metal formed by the decay of other radioactive elements. Its atoms are unstable and break down to make the elements francium and radon. Actinium is found in tiny amounts in uranium ores, such as **uranite**. and has limited applications. Its isotopes are used in radiation therapy to treat cancer.

Thorium Thorium





The most common natural radioactive metal. thorium is used inside vacuum tubes to allow an electric current to flow. It can also undergo nuclear fission, a process in which atoms split in two and release energy. Scientists are exploring ways of making thorium-powered nuclear reactors that produce electricity.

This durable rock made of solidified lava contains 12% thorium.

This thorium coating creates an electric current by releasing electrons.

Thorianite

This ore contains small crystals of thorium compounds.





Vacuum tube



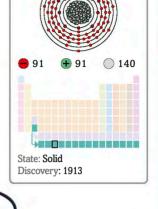
Pa Protactinium

This vibrant green

This brittle,

shiny ore

feels waxy.



radioactive mineral contains tiny amounts of protactinium. This bottle contains a protactinium sample.

A Geiger counter measures the sample's radioactivity.

Protactinium research

The name protactinium means "before actinium". This is because a uranium atom decays to form a protactinium atom, which then guickly breaks down into an actinium atom. Small quantities of protactinium are found in ancient sands and mud. Geologists use Geiger counters to carry out research to calculate how old the sands are.

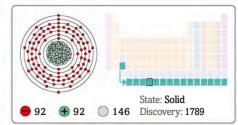
> These used nuclear fuel rods contain protactinium.

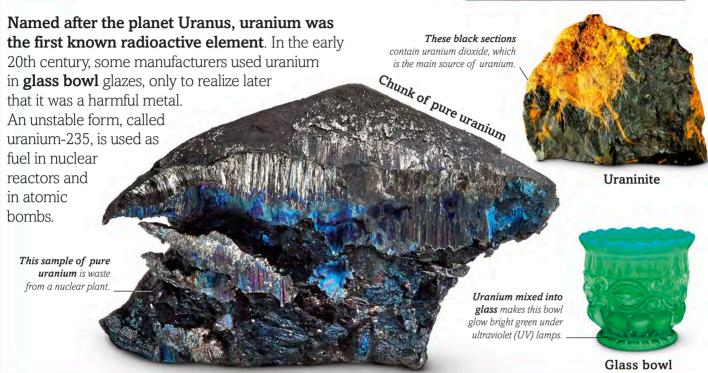


Nuclear waste

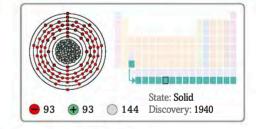


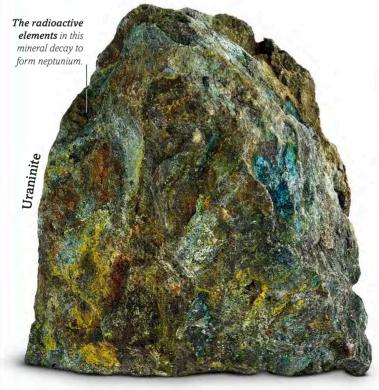
Uranium Uranium





Neptunium Neptunium





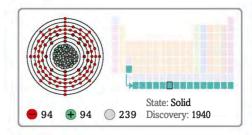


This cyclotron, built in 1938, was used to discover neptunium.

Cyclotron at the University of California, Berkeley, USA

Sitting next to uranium in the periodic table, neptunium was named after the planet Neptune. It exists in small amounts in radioactive ores, such as aeschynite. It forms during nuclear explosions and was first identified inside a machine called a cyclotron. There are no known uses for neptunium.

Plutonium Plutonium





Hardly any plutonium exists in nature: most of it has decayed into other elements over time. It was discovered during the development of nuclear bombs in World War II. Today, plutonium is used mostly as a nuclear fuel.

> This ore contains trace amounts of plutonium.

> > This plutonium battery was used in early pacemakers.



1970's pacemaker battery

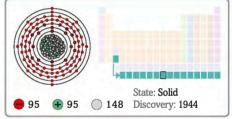
This Martian rover uses the heat given off by a supply of plutonium to generate electrical power.



Curiosity Rover

Americium

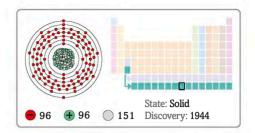




This metallic element is not found in nature. Instead. it is produced inside nuclear reactors when uranium or plutonium atoms are bombarded with neutrons. Remarkably, americium is the most common radioactive element used in the home. Radioactivity emitted by americium atoms causes the air inside **smoke detectors** to conduct electricity. When smoke disrupts the electric current, an alarm goes off.

This smoke detector contains tiny, harmless quantities of americium.

Curium





Marie Curie working in her laboratory

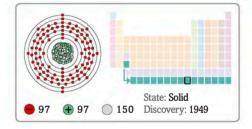
This lander studied the surface composition of the comet 67P.



Philae lander

Curium is a silvery, radioactive metal that glows reddish purple in the dark. This element was discovered by the US scientist Glenn T Seaborg at the University of California. It was named after **Marie Curie**, the scientist who discovered the element polonium. Several space probes, such as the **Philae** comet lander, use X-ray devices containing curium to study their environment.

Berkelium





University of California, Berkeley campus, USA

This element was named after the city of Berkeley – home to the University of California – where this artificial element was discovered. It was first synthesized by **Glenn T Seaborg**. Berkelium has no uses other than the creation of heavier elements. such as tennessine.

Seaborg helped develop the atom bomb, but opposed using it in World War II.



Glenn T Seaborg

Californium



Water detector

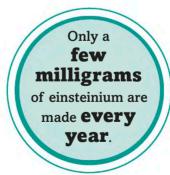


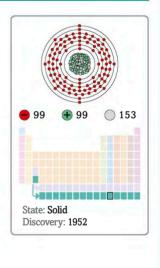
Californium is named after the US state of California. This soft, silvery metal does not exist in nature and is made by smashing berkelium atoms with neutrons in a particle accelerator (a machine in which atoms are smashed together). This **radioactive element** is used in the treatment of cancer.

Einsteinium



Albert Einstein in his study

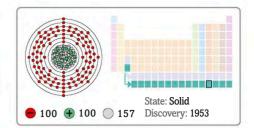




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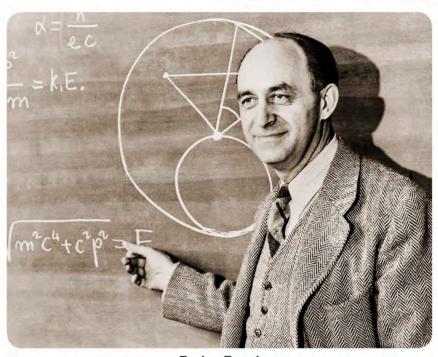
Einsteinium was discovered in the chemicals left over after the first hydrogen bomb test in 1952. The huge explosion fused smaller atoms together to make larger ones, including einsteinium. This element was named after the great German-born scientist Albert Einstein, and was found to be a silvery, radioactive metal that glows blue in the dark. It is only used for making heavier elements, such as mendelevium.

Fermium Fermium



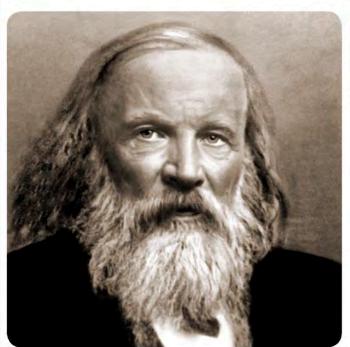
This artificial element was named after the Italian scientist **Enrico Fermi**. He built the first nuclear reactor in 1942, starting the American effort to build nuclear weapons during World War II. Fermium was first identified in the debris of an atom bomb test in 1953 This unstable element has no known uses beyond research.

> Some scientists call Enrico Fermi the "father of the atomic age".



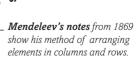
Enrico Fermi

Mendelevium



Dmitri Mendeleev



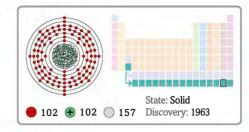


State: Solid Discovery: 1955

101 157

Mendelevium is named after the Russian chemist Dmitri Mendeleev, who invented the periodic table. Mendelevium is produced in very small amounts by firing parts of helium atoms at einsteinium atoms in a particle accelerator (a machine in which atoms are smashed together).

No Nobelium

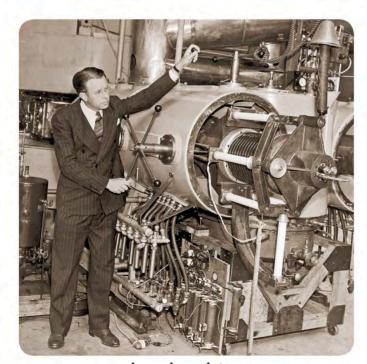




Albert Ghiorso, Torbjørn Sikkeland, and John R Walton

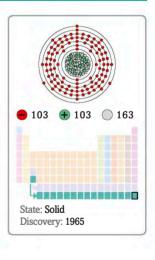
This artificial metal is named after the Swedish chemist Alfred Nobel, who started the **Nobel Prize**. It was discovered in 1963 by a team of scientists working in California. USA. This team included **Albert** Ghiorso, Torbjørn Sikkeland, and John R Walton. They used a particle accelerator to fire carbon atoms at curium atoms, creating nobelium atoms, which broke apart within minutes.

Lawrencium



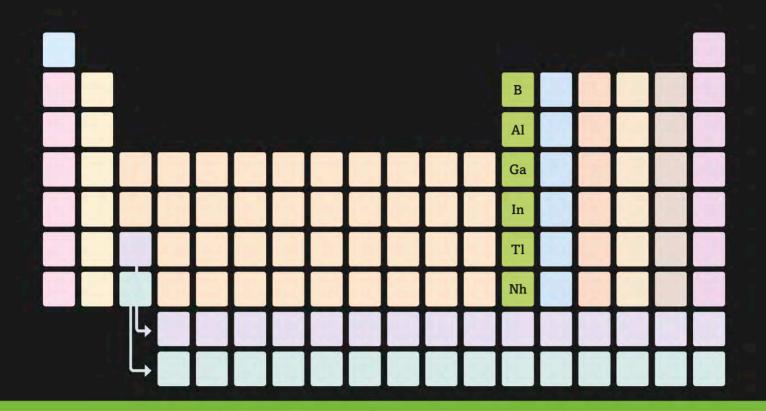
An early cyclotron

Lawrencium was produced at the Berkeley lab set up by Ernest Lawrence.



Lawrencium is named after the US scientist Ernest Lawrence, who developed the first cyclotron particle accelerator. This is a machine in which parts of atoms are smashed together by making them spin round in circles. Lawrencium atoms were produced in a similar machine by firing boron atoms at californium atoms.





The Boron Group

This group contains five natural elements and one artificial element called nihonium (Nh). Although these elements are not very reactive, none of them are found in a pure form in nature. Boron (B), the first member, is a semi-metal (an element that has properties of both metals and non-metals), while the rest are metals. The second member, aluminium (Al), is the most common metal in Earth's rocks.



Atomic structure
Members of this group
have three electrons in
the outer shell of every
atom. Some elements
have unstable isotopes.



Physical properties
All elements, except boron,
are shiny solids. Every
member of this group is soft,
except for boron (B), which is
one of the hardest elements.

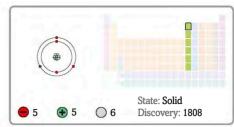


Chemical properties
Most of the elements don't react with water. Aluminium
(Al) forms an oxide layer in water, and can react with it when this layer is corroded.



Compounds
They form compounds by losing electrons to other elements. All of them react with oxygen (0) by bonding to three oxygen atoms.

Boron





Some boron compounds are among the toughest artificial substances on Earth, with only diamond being harder. This element is a very hard material and becomes even harder when made to react with carbon or nitrogen. Pure boron can be extracted from various minerals,

including **ulexite** and **kernite**. The demand for this element was once so high that people moved to live in the extreme heat of **Death Valley, USA**, to work in boron mines there. Compounds of boron in soil are essential for plants to grow healthily. We use boron in our homes every day.



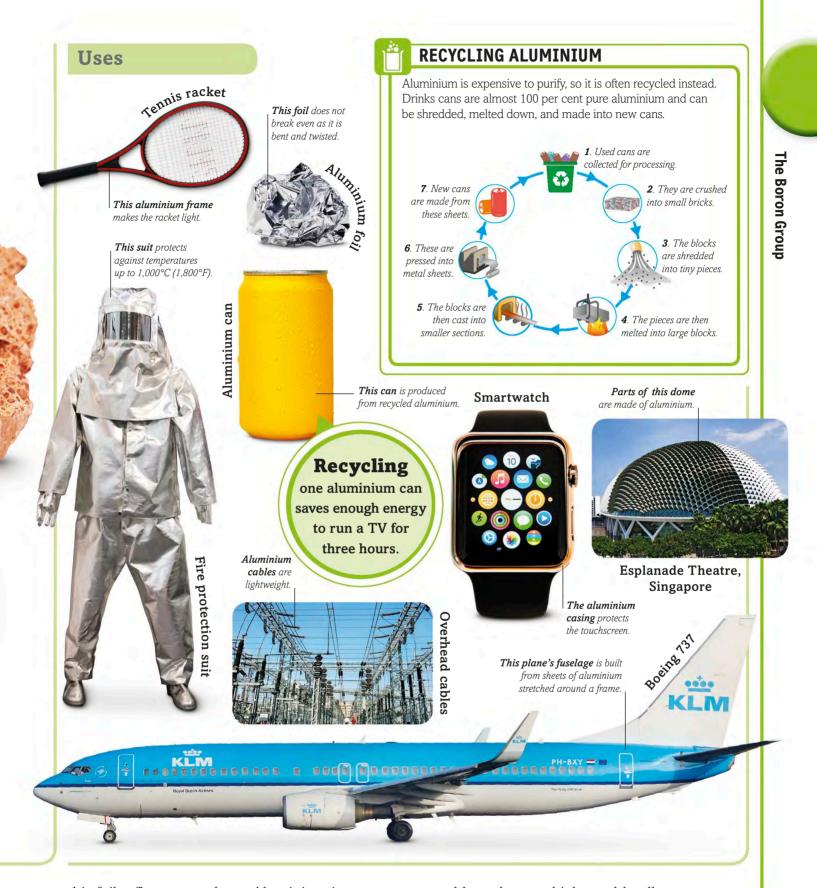
Tough, heat-resistant glassware, such as **measuring cups**, are strengthened with boron. **Boric acid** is a natural antiseptic and can be used to treat minor cuts and scrapes. A flexible layer of boron-based glass fibres is used to toughen thin **LCD screens** for televisions and laptops. Even

some kinds of **modelling clay** and bouncy silly putty contain boron compounds. Boron is named after a crumbly white salt called borax, which is used in detergents. The element is also present in a diverse range of objects, from insecticides to armour for **military tanks**.



Although aluminium is the most common metal in Earth's rocks, scientists did not discover it until the early 1800s. Even then, it took a further 80 years for scientists to work out how to use the ore bauxite to extract large amounts of pure aluminium. It can

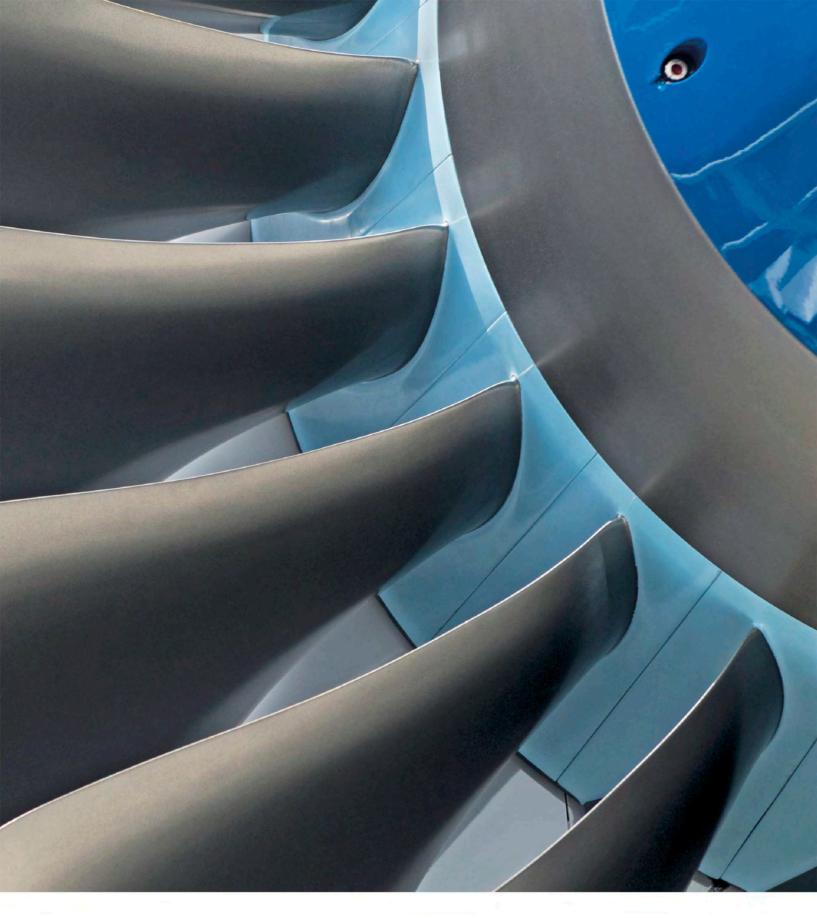
also be found in other minerals, including **variscite**. Today, aluminium is often recycled because producing it anew requires 15 times more energy. The metal makes a strong, shiny **foil** when rolled flat, and is useful for storing foods. A **fire protection suit** made from



this foil reflects away heat. Aluminium is the most widely used metal after iron. It is very lightweight compared to iron's alloy steel and almost as strong. A dome made from aluminium, such as the one in the **Esplanade Theatre** in Singapore, can be much larger than a steel-based one, which would collapse under its own weight. Aluminium is also a good electrical conductor and so is used in **overhead cables**. Tough aluminium alloys are used to produce parts of some aircraft, including the **Boeing 737**.



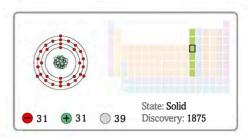
JET TURBINE The curved blades of this jet engine are shaped very precisely to catch the air, and they are also strong enough to stay stiff when working at high temperatures. There are several tough metals that fit these requirements, but most are very dense, making them too heavy for an engine powering an aeroplane into the air. That leaves only one metal for the job: aluminium.



Aluminium is what makes high-speed, long-range air travel possible. Easily moulded, it is one-quarter the weight of steel, and it never rusts. Steel is stronger, but a plane made from it would be too heavy to fly. Instead aluminium is mixed with titanium and steel to produce tough yet lightweight alloys, which are used in the engines

and bodies of jet aircraft. There is almost twice as much aluminium in Earth's rock as there is iron. However, purifying aluminium takes a lot of energy. Once pure, though, it can be recycled over and over again. So, one day these engine blades might transform into a fizzy drink can.

Gallium Gallium

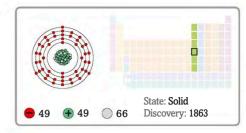


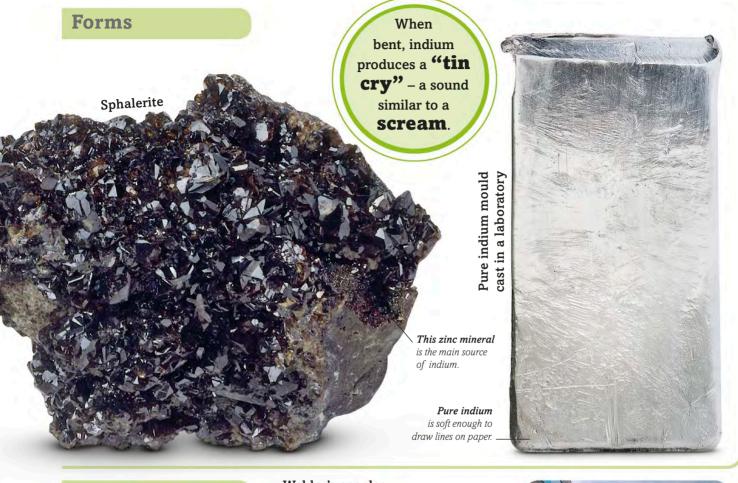


Gallium melts at just 29°C (84.2°F), which means it soon becomes liquid when held in the hand. This element is found in small amounts in ores of zinc and aluminium, such as diaspore. Pure gallium is isolated when the other elements from this ore are extracted.

Gallium has a number of uses. It is mixed with indium and tin to form a liquid alloy called galinstan, which can be used in **thermometers**. Gallium is also found in **Blu-ray lasers**, **LEDs**, and some solar panels, such as those on NASA's Mars **rovers**.

Indium 1 Indium









This glass coated with indium oxide is shiny but still lets light through.

Transistor

The tiny electronic switches inside this transistor contain indium.

Protective goggles coated with indium stop the heat damaging the welder's eyes.



Windows in a building

Indium is named after indigo, which is the colour of the light its atoms release when electrified. Its minerals are rare, and most of the metal is obtained from lead and zinc ores, such as **sphalerite**. **Pure indium** is very soft, and the element is mostly used in compound

form. For example, a compound called indium tin oxide used on a **touchscreen** allows the computer to detect when a finger makes contact with the screen. Indium is also required in microchips, and to produce **welder's goggles** and **windows** that are heat- and glare-proof.



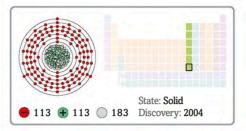
Thallium was named after the Greek word *thallos*, which means "green shoot": it was first identified from the colours in its flame, which includes a bright green light. Thallium was discovered in 1861 by William Crookes and Claude-Auguste Lamy. Although

both chemists worked separately, they found the element in the same way – as a residue while making strong acids using the mineral **pyrite**. Thallium was later found to exist in larger amounts in other minerals, including **thallium alum**. **Pure thallium** is toxic and has to be handled

Uses Heart function scan Blood injected with a thallium compound shows up on a patient's heart scan. Spectacles These thin Until the lenses contain strong, thallium-1970s, thallium infused glass. salts were commonly used as ant poison.

toxic and has to be handled with care when used. A chlorine compound of thallium is used in **scans** to study a patient's blood circulation. Thallium oxide also helps make glass stronger for use in **spectacles** and cameras.

Nihonium Nihonium

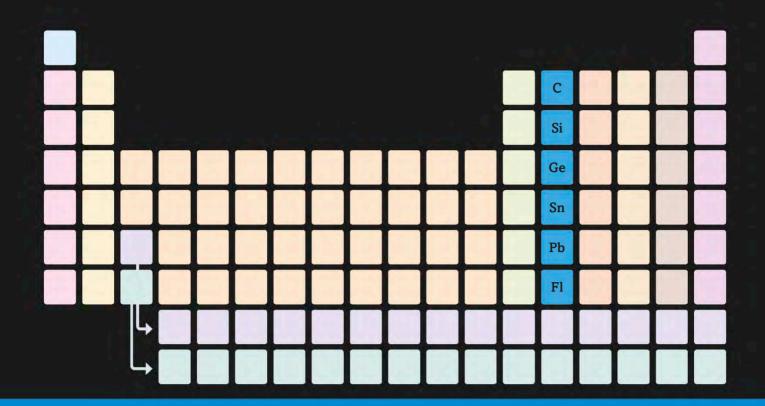




Kozuka Morita (left), with a visiting official at the RIKEN Nuclear Research Centre, Wako, Japan

Nihonium was named after the Japanese word *nihon*, which means Japan. A metallic element, nihonium was first detected in 2003 by teams studying the artificial element moscovium, which has the atomic number of 115. They noticed that atoms of moscovium broke apart after only a few seconds into atoms of an element with an atomic number of 113. In 2004, Kozuka Morita and a team of scientists at the RIKEN Nuclear Research Centre in Japan isolated this element in a different way: they fused bismuth and zinc atoms together.





The Carbon Group

This group contains one non-metal, two semi-metals, and three metals. The non-metal carbon (C) is the main element in all living things. The semi-metals – silicon (Si) and germanium (Ge) – are elements that have the properties of both metals and non-metals, and they are essential in electronics. Two of the metals – tin (Sn) and lead (Pb) – have been used by humans for centuries. Flerovium (Fl), an artificial element, has no known uses.



Atomic structure Members of this group have four electrons in the outer shell of each atom. These atoms can bond with up to four other atoms.



Physical properties
At room temperature, all
natural elements in this
set are solid. Flerovium (FI)
is an artificial element, and
scientists think it may be a solid.



Chemical properties
All natural elements
in this group can react
with hydrogen (H). Carbon (C)
and silicon (Si) can react with
both metals and non-metals.



Compounds
These elements react with hydrogen to form compounds called hydrides. Each element can lose up to four electrons when forming compounds.

^c Carbon State: Solid Discovery: Prehistoric diamond **Forms** This compressed form Crude oil of sooty carbon is formed underground Mixture of liquid, carbon-rich Coal compounds This colourless Glossy surface crystal forms in magma deep underground. This diamond's brightness depends on its cut, which determines how many times light entering the gem will reflect inside. The shiny, metallic surface feels soft and slippery. aboratory sample of graphite

Carbon has the largest number of compounds of any element – with more than nine million known. Carbon is the fourth most common element in the Universe. Each carbon atom can bond to four others, allowing them to form chains and rings. Pure

carbon exists in three forms on Earth – **graphite**, **diamond**, and buckminsterfullerene (a structure based on 60 interlinked carbon atoms). Diamond is the hardest substance in nature. It is often used in jewellery. The blades of some **saws** are coated with diamonds, and



can cut into anything. Only a diamond can cut another diamond. Graphite is much softer, which is why it is used in **pencil "lead"**. It is also used in some batteries. Coal is currently the largest source of fuel for the generation of electricity, but its fumes are also known

to have harmful environmental and health effects. Crude oil, natural gas, and coal are hydrocarbons (compounds containing only hydrogen and carbon) that occur in nature. They can be used as fuels and as plastics for objects such as **polythene bags**.



PINK DIAMOND With a mass of only just over 3 g (0.1 oz), this jewel – known as The Sweet Josephine – is one of the largest pink diamonds ever sold. Diamonds are normally colourless forms of pure carbon, and if there is any colour, it comes from tiny amounts of another substance. For example, boron makes the gem appear blue. Strangely, pink diamonds have no impurities, and no-one knows why they are pink.



The Sweet Josephine was cut from raw diamond that is more than 1.5 billion years old. This formed 150 km (93 miles) beneath Earth's surface and was then pushed up by a volcanic eruption, before eventually being dug out at a mine in Australia. Diamonds form when carbon is squeezed and heated to more than 1,000°C (1,832°F). This process

rearranges the carbon atoms into a rigid crystal that makes diamond the world's hardest substance. The process also gives diamond the ability to bend light, a property that gives these jewels their glorious sparkle. With the right cut and polish, a diamond can be made into a beautiful gem that is prized throughout the world.



About 90 per cent of the minerals that make up Earth's rocks contain silicon, a common element in our planet's crust. Nearly all silicon minerals are compounds of silicon and oxygen, known as silicates. The most common silicate is quartz, the mineral form of silicon dioxide, or

silica. It is also the most common substance in **sand**. **Amethyst** is a type of quartz. Quartz deposits are widely found in rocks such as granite and sandstone. A valuable type of silica is **opal**, which is used as a gemstone. The clays used to make pottery and **ceramics** are also silicates.



One of the most important uses of silicon is in electronics. Thin slices called **silicon wafers** drive electronic circuits. This versatile element is also used to turn sunlight into electricity in solar panels. Artificial silica is used to create **aerogel**, a lightweight but tough substance

that does not conduct heat well. It is used in fire-fighting suits, and prevents flames reaching a firefighter. Another silicon compound is silicone, which can be moulded into any shape, and is used in a wide range of products from **baking moulds** to **watches**.

Forms

Germanium

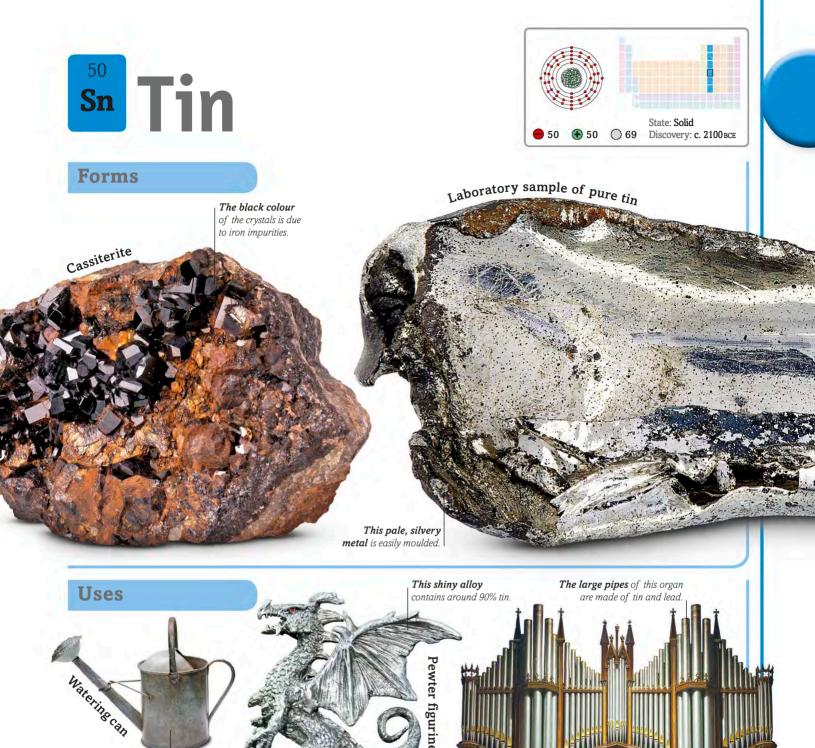
This sulfur mineral is rich in germanium.

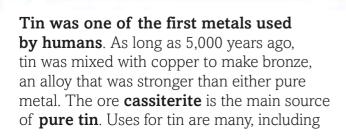


This semi-metal is named after the country Germany. It was discovered there in 1886 by chemist Clemens A Winkler, nearly 20 years after Russian chemist Dmitri Mendeleev predicted its existence and properties. Germanite is a mineral rich in germanium,



but this element is mainly extracted from the ores of silver, copper, and lead. One of its compounds, germanium oxide, is used in wideangle **camera lenses**. It is also used in some **microchips** and in a number of **car sensors** that aid in navigation.





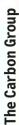
The tin plating on this steel whistle prevents rusting.

Tin plating over steel makes the can more resistant to corrosion.

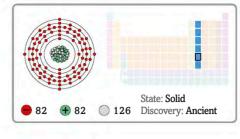
Tin whistle

plating steel objects, such as **cans**, to stop them corroding. A compound called tin chloride is used for dyeing silks. This metal continues to be used in a variety of tough alloys, including **pewter**, soft solder, and bronze.

Pipe organ









The chemical symbol for lead, Pb, comes from the Latin word *plumbum*.

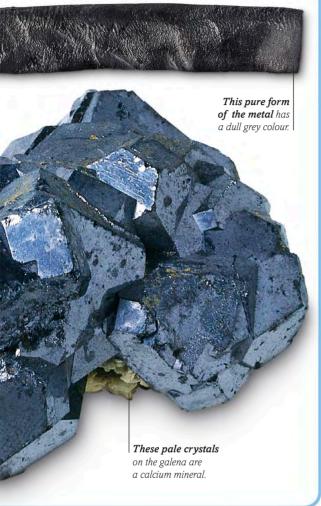
This is where the word "plumber" comes from: in ancient Roman times, water pipes used in plumbing were made from this soft metal. Lead compounds are found in the minerals

Rust-resistant pipe

crocoite, **anglesite**, and **galena** – the main source of **pure lead**. Lead was used far more commonly in the past as an important ingredient in paints, hair-dyes, and insecticides. A common historical use was in **glassware**. It has limited applications today. Lead can

metal

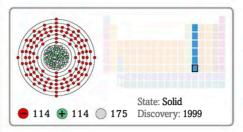
Pure strip of lead refined in a laboratory





because it absorbs radiation. It is also used in weights for diving, car batteries, and bendy "flashings" for sealing roofs. Lead fell out of favour because it turned out to be poisonous.

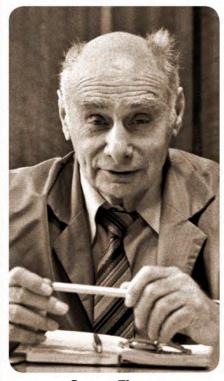
Flerovium



This machine produces flerovium by smashing together atoms of calcium and plutonium.



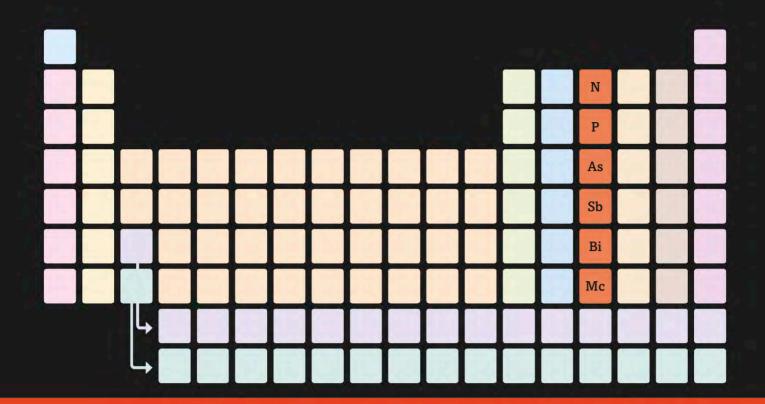
Particle accelerator at Joint Institute for Nuclear Research, Dubna, Russia



Georgy Flerov

Flerovium takes its name from the Russian scientist Georgy Flerov. He founded the **Joint Institute for Nuclear Research** in Dubna. Russia, where this element was first produced in a particle accelerator (a machine in which atoms are smashed together). Flerovium is highly radioactive and its atoms last for only a few seconds before breaking apart.





The Nitrogen Group

This group includes different types of natural element – non-metals, semi-metals, and dense metals – as well as moscovium (Mc), an artificial element. The group is also known as "pnictogens". This derives from the Greek word *pnigein*, which means "to choke" and refers to the potential toxicity of nitrogen (N) in certain forms.



Atomic structure Members of this group have atoms with five electrons in the outer shell. These atoms can form up to three bonds

at the same time.



Physical properties All the members are solids, except nitrogen (N). The density of elements increases down the group: bismuth (Bi) is 8,000 times denser than nitrogen.

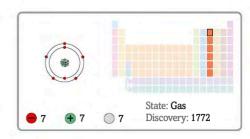


Chemical properties
Phosphorus (P), which
exists in two main forms,
is reactive, but the
others in this group
are fairly stable.



Compounds
When reacting with three
hydrogen (H) atoms, all
members of the group
form reactive gaseous
compounds called hydrides.

Nitrogen



Titan



Bacteria living inside plant roots can take nitrogen from the air for use by the plant.

Nitrogen surrounds us all the time because it is the transparent gas that makes up nearly three-quarters of Earth's atmosphere. Since **pure nitrogen** does not react easily, its liquid form can be used to freeze and preserve items such as blood and tissue samples.

Microscopic image of root nodule

> **Nitratine** is one of the few minerals rich in nitrogen. Some useful nitrogen compounds can be made by industrial processes. A group of nitrogen compounds is used in explosives, including TNT and nitroglycerine. When ignited, they explode because the bonds



down dead plants and

animals, which release

back into the soil.

their nitrogen compounds

between nitrogen atoms detach very quickly. Nitrogen fuels, such as nitromethane, are used in drag bikes, providing a lot more power than carbon-and-hydrogen only fuels, such as petrol. The compound hydrazine is used in thrusters on spacecraft, such as the **Phoenix Mars Lander**.

when they eat, and

release it in their dung.

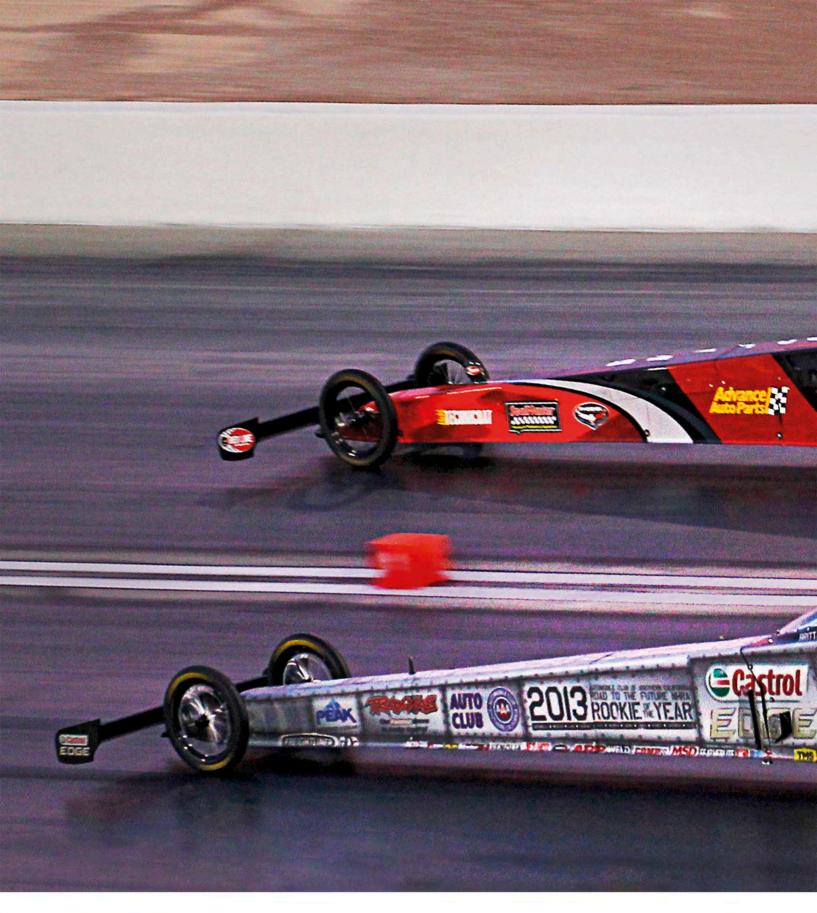
nitrogen compounds

from pure nitrogen

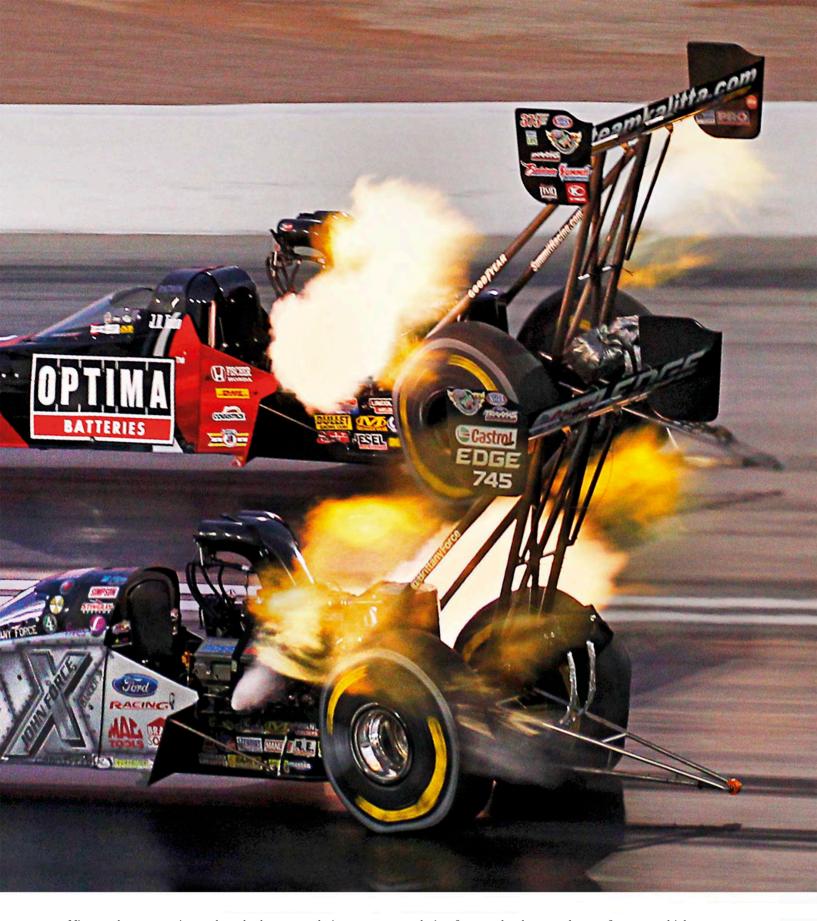
in the air.

Some nitrogen compounds are put in dyes and glues. An industrial technique called the Haber process turns nitrogen and hydrogen gas into ammonia, a liquid commonly used to make nitrogen fertilizers. When mixed with soil, these fertilizers boost plant growth.

Nitrogen fertilizer

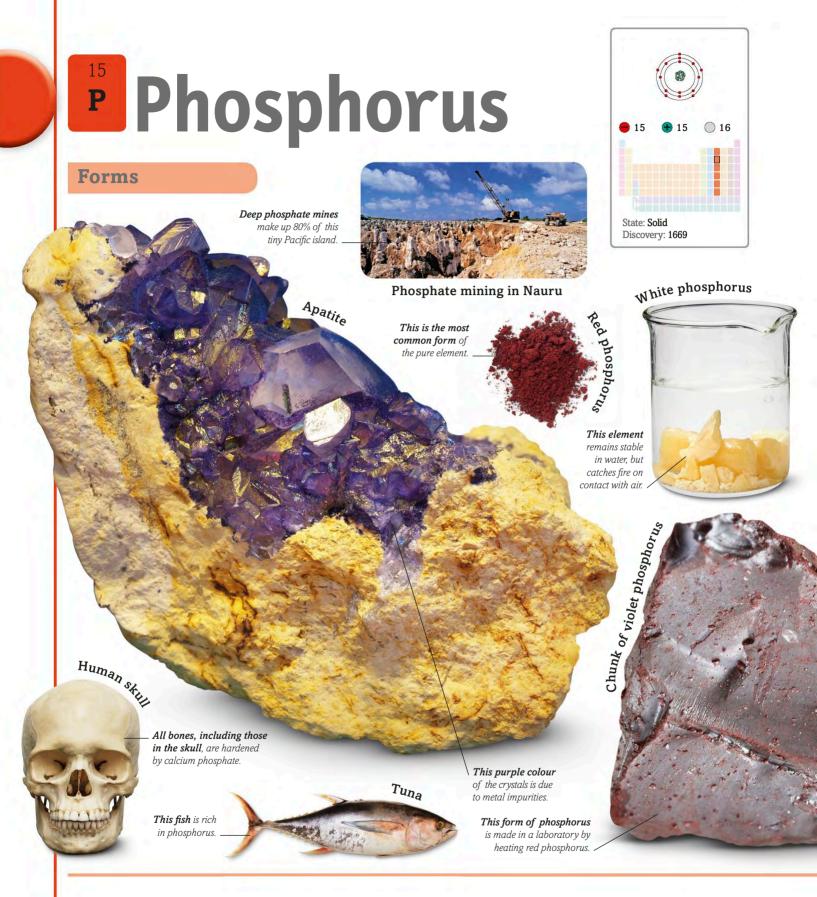


DRAG RACING Zooming along a dead straight track, these all-powerful dragsters accelerate all the way to the finish line. They contain massive engines filled with an extra-powerful fuel called nitromethane, which is often shortened to "nitro". Burning eight times faster than regular petrol used in most cars, this super fuel can push dragsters to speeds in excess of 480 km/h (300 mph).



Nitromethane contains carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen, but it is the latter element that really gives this fuel its immense power. During the process of combustion – when oxygen is mixed with the fuel in the race car's mighty engine – nitromethane burns so violently that nitrogen escapes from the fuel and returns to its pure form. This

chain of events leads to a release of energy, which propels the dragsters to breakneck speeds. Although these races are an incredible spectacle to behold, driving using nitromethane can be dangerous due to the explosive nature of nitrogen when used in this way: drag racers are taking a risk to win.



Phosphorus was accidently discovered by German alchemist Hennig Brand. In 1669, in his quest for the mythical Philosopher's Stone (a material some believed could turn any metal into gold), he boiled a large pot full of urine for days. This produced a mysterious glowing

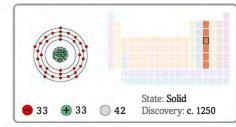
substance, which he called phosphorus, meaning "giver of light". Phosphorus is the first element to have a discoverer with a recorded name. It is never pure in nature, and occurs in different minerals. Phosphorus has several flammable,



solid forms, including **red**, **white**, black, and **violet**. The glow seen by Brand was caused by white phosphorus reacting with oxygen. Phosphorus is mainly found in **phosphate** minerals (in which phosphorus links to oxygen), such as **apatite**, its main ore.

Phosphates are present in **fine china**, and are an important ingredient in **fertilizers**. The strips on the sides of **safety match boxes** contain pure phosphorus. More complex phosphorus compounds used in **pesticides** are poisonous.

As Arsenic





Arsenic is often called the "king of poisons". Every form of arsenic – either pure or in a compound – is poisonous to animals. In fact, arsenic poisons have been used for centuries. This semi-metal is found in several minerals with striking colours, including **orpiment**. Naturally

occurring **pure arsenic** has a shiny, grey colour. Arsenic compounds are used in making some **rat poisons**. The leading use of arsenic today is for strengthening lead. This is done by mixing arsenic with lead to create a tough alloy that is often used in **car batteries**.



egyptian kohl

Antimony gets its name from the Greek word *anti-monos*, meaning "not alone".

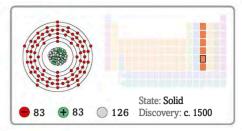
This may refer to the fact that the element is never found pure in nature, but is always found combined with heavier metals, such as lead. The element's symbol, Sb, comes from *stibium*, the Latin word for kohl, a form of eye make-up. The mineral ore **stibnite** is the largest source of **pure antimony**. Its pure form is mostly used to make hard alloys, such as that in the **metal type** used by some printers. Ancient **Egyptian kohl** was made from powdered stibnite.

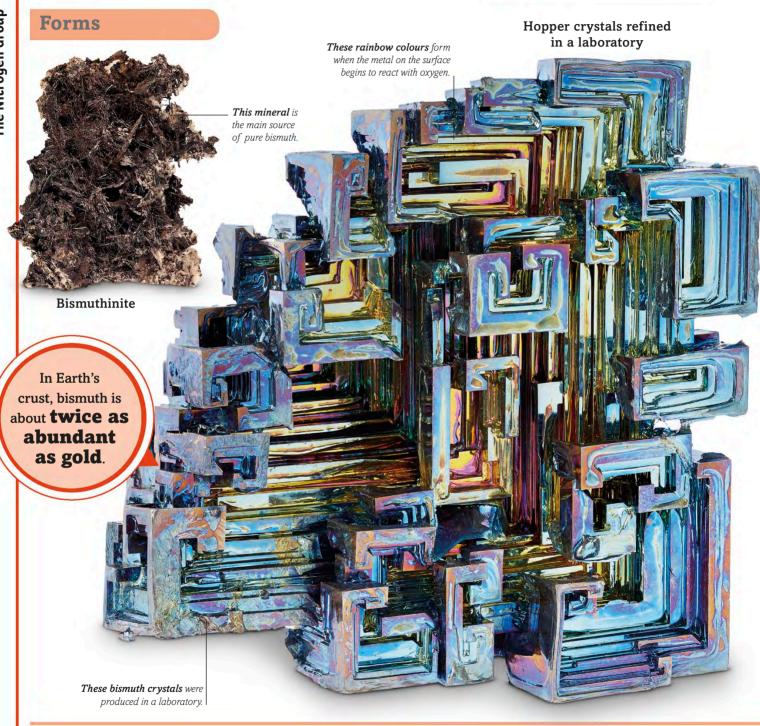
eyeshadow.

Kohl makes

it easier to see in strong sunlight.

Bismuth





Bismuth is a radioactive element but its atoms are relatively stable and last for millions of years. People have known about bismuth for centuries. The Incas of South America added it to weapons made of the alloy bronze to harden them, while

ancient Egyptians used a bismuth mineral to make their cosmetics glittery. Pure bismuth forms an oxide in air that is seen as colourful crystals called **hopper crystals**. This element is very brittle and has few uses when not in a compound form. Yellow bismuth

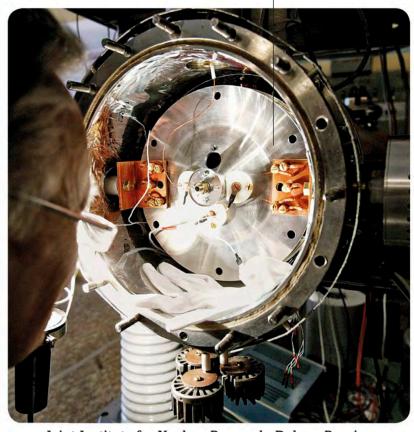


pigments are used in paints and **cosmetics**, while several bismuth compounds are also in **medicines**. An alloy of bismuth and tin is an ingredient in fire sprinklers.

Mc Moscovium



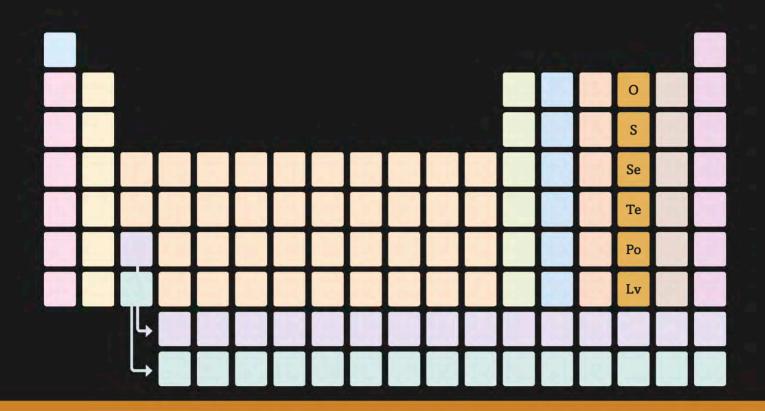
This is one of the machines in this research centre.



Joint Institute for Nuclear Research, Dubna, Russia

Only about a hundred or so atoms of this heavy, artificial element have been made. Moscovium was first created at the Joint Institute for Nuclear Research in Dubna, Russia. A team of Russian scientists, led by Yuri Oganessian, created this element by smashing americium atoms with parts of calcium atoms. It is named after the Russian capital city of Moscow. This element is extremely radioactive, and its atoms break up within a fraction of a second. Scientists think that moscovium would be a dense, metallic solid but with such small samples, they can only measure how big the atoms are before they break up.





The Oxygen Group

This group does not include any natural metals. The first two members, oxygen (O) and sulfur (S), are non-metals widespread in nature. The remaining three natural elements are semi-metals. Only the artificial member, livermorium (Lv), is thought to be a metal, but chemists don't really know for sure.



Atomic structure All members have six

electrons in the outer shell of each atom. This electron structure makes these elements highly reactive.



Physical properties

The members of this group are solids, except oxygen (0), which is a gas at room temperature. The density of the elements increases down the group.



Chemical properties

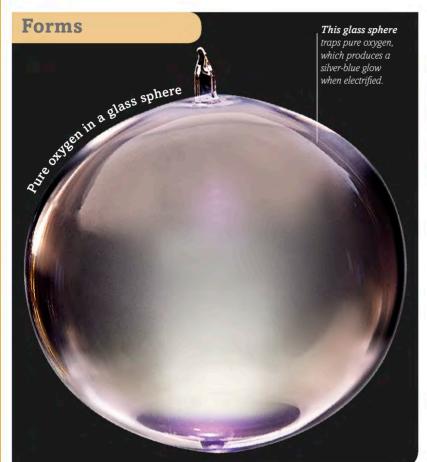
The reactivity of these elements decreases down the group. Oxygen is always involved in the process of combustion.

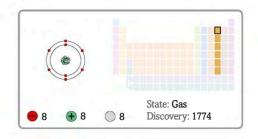


Compounds

These elements can form compounds with each other. They all react with carbon (C) to form compounds, some with strong smells.

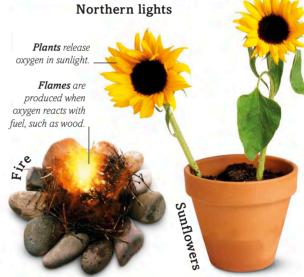
⁸ Oxygen

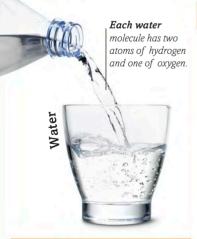


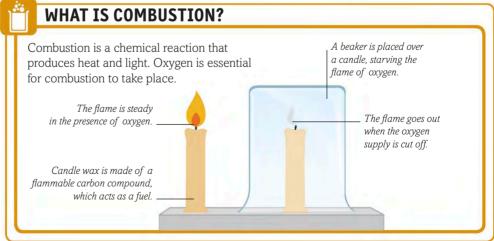


Streaks of light adorn the sky as atoms of oxygen in the air are hit by a stream of particles blasting from the Sun.









Oxygen is the most common element in Earth's crust. Oxygen and its compounds make up half of all rocks and minerals on our planet. In the atmosphere, pure oxygen makes up around one-fifth of the air. This element is a transparent gas. Life on Earth depends on

oxygen for survival. Animals breathe in air to collect the oxygen in it. Our bodies' cells then use that oxygen to break apart sugars to release energy, which powers our bodies. Another process that involves oxygen is the burning reaction called combustion, in which oxygen



reacts with a fuel and produces **fire**. Oxygen is also used up when it reacts with other elements to form compounds called oxides. However, it is replenished by **plants** through a process called photosynthesis, which releases fresh oxygen. Car **engines** are powered by the combustion

of petrol or other fuels. Oxygen is also useful in the **making of steel**. Tanks of oxygen let **mountaineers** breathe easily in environments that have low levels of this gas. Rockets, such as the **Atlas V**, carry liquid oxygen to burn fuel in the absence of air in space.

Known since ancient times, sulfur is one of the few non-metals that can be found pure in nature. This yellow, crystalline element is found in large amounts near volcanic craters. Another name for sulfur is "brimstone", which refers to the way its crystals burn, melting into a blood-red liquid. In some religions, brimstone is thought to be the fuel that burns in the underworld. **Pure sulfur** is extracted from underground deposits using hot water. The hot **liquid sulfur** is then pumped to the surface. This element is a common ingredient in many



minerals, such as **celestine**. Many sulfur compounds smell bad. For example, the rottenegg smell of volcanic pools is due to hydrogen sulfide gas. Other examples include **skunk** spray, the gaseous substance emitted by chopped **onions**, and the odour of the **titan arum**

flower. There are many uses for this non-metal. Its compounds can harden natural rubber for use in **tyres**, preserve **dried fruits**, and make strong **battery** acids. The element has antibacterial properties and is used in antibiotic medicine, such as **penicillin**.



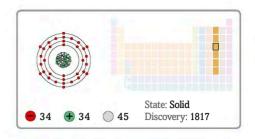
DANAKIL DEPRESSION This hot spring in Africa's Danakil Depression is surrounded by a yellow crust of pure sulfur. The sunken region between Ethiopia and Eritrea in East Africa is a wild volcanic area, packed with erupting craters, arid deserts, boiling mud, and pools with unusual colours caused by the presence of sulfur and many mineral salts.

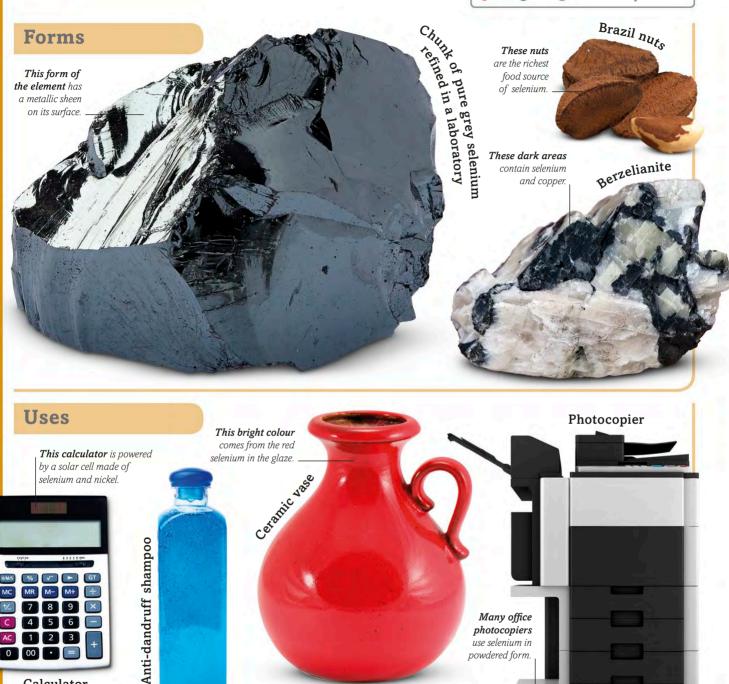


At more than 100 m (330 ft) below sea level, the Danakil Depression is one of the lowest points on Earth's surface. This area receives little or no rainfall and the weather is hot and dry, with temperatures soaring above 50°C (120°F). The scalding green water of the springs inside the depression contains pure sulfur as well as a toxic sulfur

compound called sulfuric acid. As the water evaporates, sulfur deposits build up around the edges of the pools, making beautiful shapes across the vast landscape. Tourists visit to marvel at the remarkable sights at Danakil, even though the inhospitable conditions in the area give it the title of the "cruellest place on Earth".

Selenium





A selenium compound in this shampoo treats dandruff.

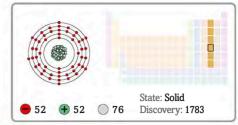
Selenium is named after Selene, the Greek goddess of the Moon. This element is a semi-metal and so has the properties of both metals and non-metals. Selenium has two main pure forms: grey selenium, which is a hard substance, and red selenium, which is a soft

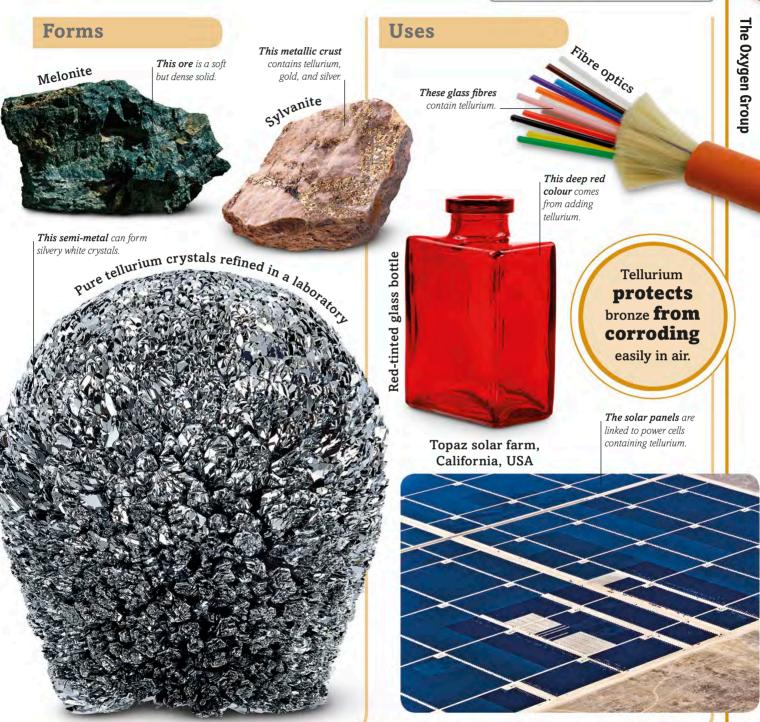
powder. The most common use of selenium is as an ingredient that provides colour in glass and ceramics. Selenium is sensitive to light, so it is used in solar cells that convert sunlight into electricity. It is also utilized in photocopy machines.

use selenium in powdered form

Calculator



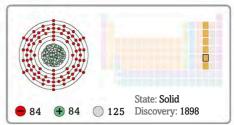




Tellurium is one of the 10 rarest elements on this planet. It gets its name from the Latin word *tellus*, which means Earth. This element is often found as a compound with another element, such as the metal nickel, as in the case of the ore **melonite**. Tellurium is also produced as a waste

product when lead and copper are refined. **Pure tellurium** can take on two forms: a shiny, metallic solid or a brown powder. This element is mainly used in the glass of **fibre optics**, which carry high volumes of information much faster than copper cables.

Polonium





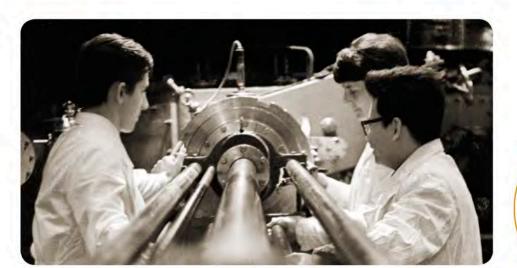
Polonium is very radioactive: 1 g (0.03 oz) of this metal quickly heats up to 500°C (932°F) because of the radiation it emits.

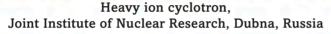
This element was discovered by Marie and Pierre Curie in 1898. Marie named it after Poland, her homeland. It is rare in nature,

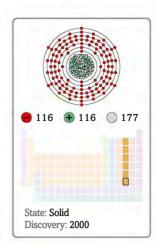
and is normally produced in nuclear reactors. Despite its radioactivity, this element is used in a few ways. It can trigger the explosion of **atom bombs**. It heats and powers spacecraft, such as the Russian **Lunokhod rovers**, which landed on the Moon in the 1970s.



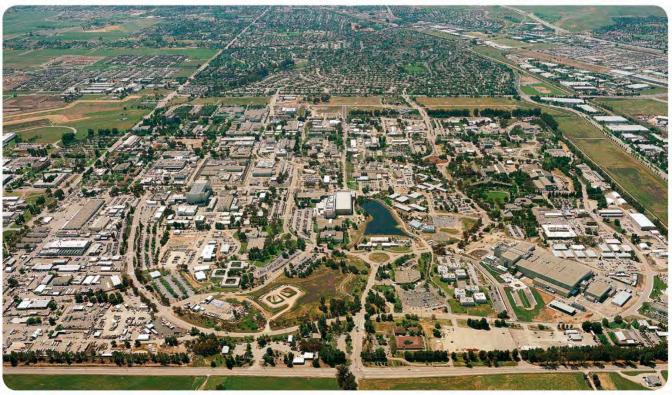
Livermorium







Livermorium has been named after this laboratory



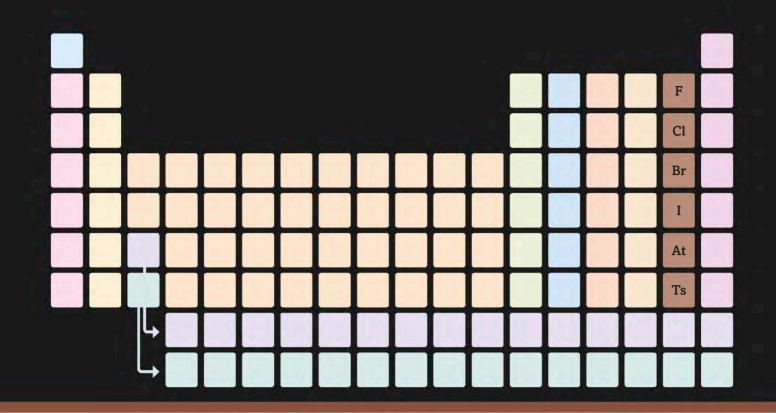
Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, California, USA

When livermorium atoms were first produced in 2000, they broke apart in a fraction of a second. The first successful attempt to create atoms of this element was made at the Joint Institute of Nuclear Research at Dubna, Russia. The team worked

with material provided by the **Lawrence** Livermore National Laboratory in California, USA. This highly radioactive element was produced by firing calcium atoms at curium atoms in a particle accelerator (a machine in which atoms are smashed together).



This glass sphere contains pure iodine (I).



The Halogen Group

One of the most reactive groups in the periodic table, this set includes non-metals. The name "halogen" means "salt former", which refers to the way that elements in this group react with metals to form salts, such as sodium chloride, widely known as common salt. Scientists don't know much about tennessine (Ts), an artificial halogen.



Atomic structure All members have seven

electrons in the outer shell of each atom. There is space for one more electron in each outer shell.



Physical properties

Bromine (Br) is the only halogen that is liquid. Fluorine (F) and chlorine (Cl) are gases, while iodine and astatine (At) are solids.



Chemical properties

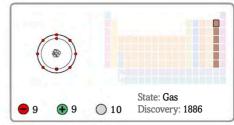
Every halogen atom receives one electron from other atoms to form a compound. Reactivity decreases down the group.



Compounds

The halogens react with hydrogen (H) to form acidic compounds. Halogen compounds are used in products such as bleach.

Fluorine





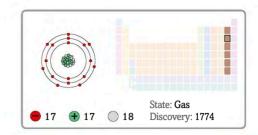
This highly reactive element is incredibly dangerous when pure: just a tiny amount added to the air can kill a person. A pale yellow gas, fluorine reacts with brick, glass, and steel, burning a hole straight through them. Because it is so dangerous, pure fluorine

is often stored in nickel containers that can resist its attack. Minerals such as **cryolite** and **fluorite** contain this element. This gas and its less harmful compounds have a wide variety of uses. Hydrofluoric acid is a toxic liquid used to etch patterns on glass, as seen in some **glass vases**.



Some glazes used to coat ceramics contain fluorine minerals. When heated, these glazes release fluorine, which hardens the ceramic underneath. Another compound called polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) is commonly used to make non-stick pans: this material is slippery and prevents food that has burned while cooking from sticking to the pan. Thin fibres made of PTFE are also used to make lightweight, waterproof clothing. One of the most common uses of fluorine compounds is in **toothpaste**: they toughen teeth against decay.

¹⁷Chlorine





Chlorine is named after the Greek word chlóros, which means "pale green", a reference to the colour of this gaseous element. Chlorine is a highly reactive gas that forms a number of compounds, and does not exist pure in nature. The most common chlorine compound is sodium

chloride, found in nature as the mineral **halite**. Chlorine compounds are important for the body and are used by muscles and nerves. They are also present in sweat. As it is poisonous in its pure form, chlorine gas was used as a weapon during World War I: soldiers had to wear masks for protection



against this weapon. Today, chlorine is used in many ways. Its compounds are present in everything from **running shoes** to **choloroform**. It reacts with hydrogen to make hydrochloric acid, an industrial cleaner. This corrosive liquid eats away at most metals, releasing hydrogen gas. A weaker

chlorine acid is used to clean water in **swimming pools**, while **bleach** and other cleaners use chlorine compounds to kill germs. One of the most widely used plastics, **polyvinyl chloride (PVC)**, contains chlorine. It is a tough plastic, used to make many rigid objects.



OCEAN CLEAN UP Chlorine is a common ingredient in cleaning products, and can be used for scrubbing everything from bathroom tiles to ocean floors. These divers are trying to remove harmful seaweed in the Mediterranean Sea using the power of chlorine. This green weed grows quickly and can potentially kill other sea plants by depriving them of their essential nutrients. Some fish are also poisoned if they eat this toxic weed.



The two divers use chlorine twice in the cleaning process. First, they cover the thick seaweed with a sheet made of PVC, a tough plastic containing chlorine. Next, they pump a compound of sodium and chlorine called sodium hypochlorite under the sheet. This powerful liquid bleach kills the unwanted

seaweed. Several weeks later, the divers return to remove the PVC sheets. The invading seaweed will not regrow, and the plants on the seabed will gradually return. Although chlorine is highly reactive and can damage skin and other body parts, divers are well-protected by their rubber wetsuits.



Bromine is the only non-metal that is a liquid at room temperature. A thick vapour given off by this liquid is dangerous if breathed in. **Pure bromine** is never found in nature. Its compounds can easily mix in water, and are found dissolved in seawater

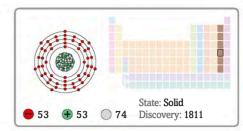
and extremely salty lakes, such as the **Dead Sea** in the Middle East. Solid bromine salts, including **potassium bromide**, collect as the water evaporates away, leaving behind crusts of white crystals. Bromine can then be extracted from the solid salts. A common



use of this element is as a disinfectant to clean water. It works better than chlorine in hot tubs as chlorine escapes into the air easily from the warm water. The concentration of bromine in swimming pools can be regulated using **chemical test kits**. Bromine compounds

can be used in film photography in which images are printed using chemicals on **negatives**. Today, bromine is mainly used in **fireproof material**, such as firefighter suits or furnishings, because it doesn't catch fire easily.

Iodine





Iodine is the only halogen that is solid at room temperature. The element forms a purple gas when heated, and is named after the Greek word *iodes*, which means "violet". Iodine was first discovered in seaweed, and many plants and animals in the sea have high levels of iodine.

Seafood, including **crabs** and fish, provide the element in our diet. The human body needs small amounts of iodine to make an important substance called thyroxine, which helps us grow. Iodine is also used to make **printing ink**, red and brown food dyes, and disinfectants.

At Astatine

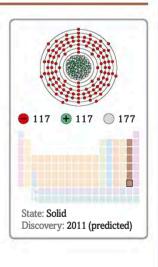
State: Solid 125 Discovery: 1940

Atoms of astatine are unstable. and typically break down after just a few hours, into atoms of lighter elements, such as bismuth. This radioactive element itself forms in a similar way when atoms of a heavier element called francium break apart. Tiny amounts of this rare element are found in uranium ores, such as **uraninite**. The Italian physicist Emilio Segrè was one of the first scientists to isolate a sample of pure astatine. He was able to do so by using a particle accelerator: this is a machine that smashes together atoms and then studies the results

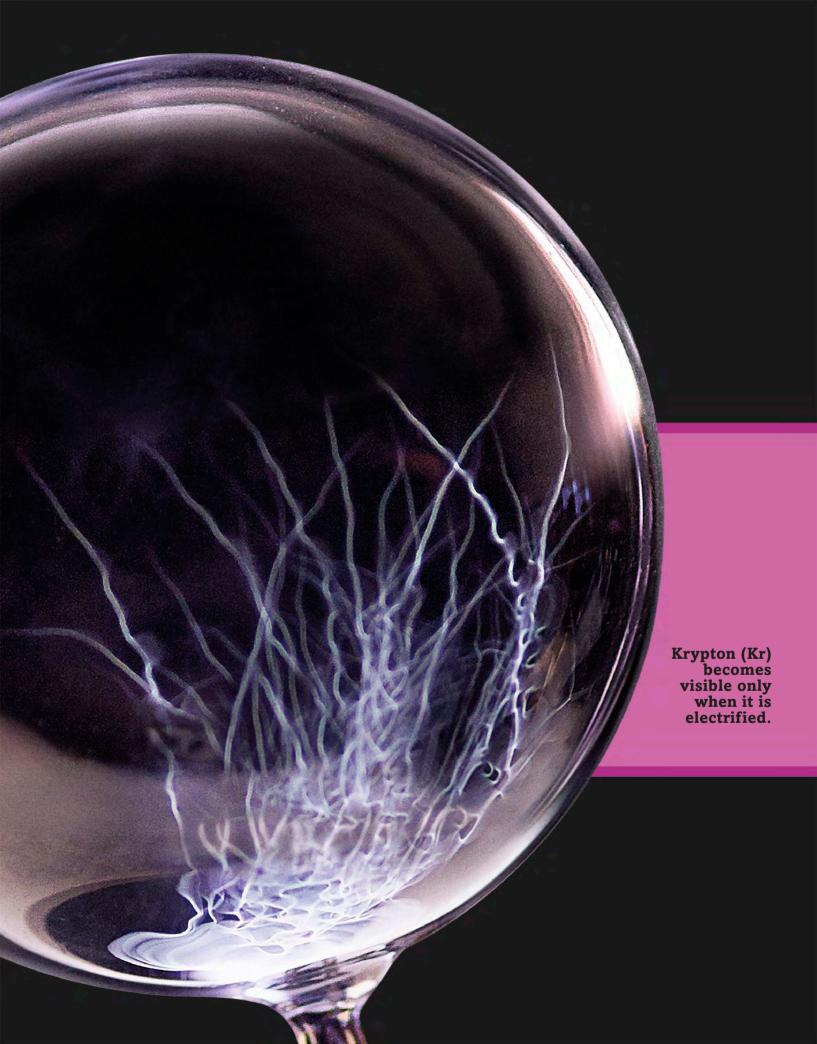


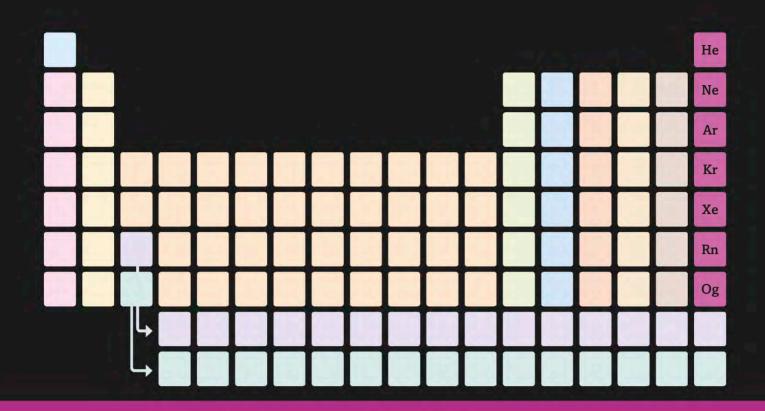
Tennessine

Atoms of tennessine existed for a few seconds after they were formed.



Tennessine is the youngest element in the periodic table. It was produced in 2011, in the Russian city of Dubna. The element was named after the US state of Tennessee, home to the Oak Ridge National Laboratory, which houses one of the first, large-scale nuclear reactors ever built. Only a few atoms of this halogen element have ever been made. Even so, scientists have predicted it to be a semi-metal, not a non-metal like all the other halogens.





Noble Gases

The group on the far right of the periodic table belongs to the noble gases. These elements are described as "noble" because they do not react with the other "common" elements, such as oxygen (O). Their atoms never form bonds in nature, not even with atoms of their own kind, and so they are always gases at room temperature.



Atomic structure

Apart from a helium (He) atom that has two electrons in its outer shell, all other elements in this group have atoms with eight electrons.



Physical properties

All the members of this group are colourless gases. Going down the group, the density increases – radon (Rn) is 54 times denser than helium.



Chemical properties

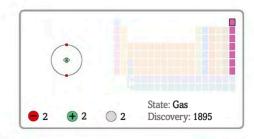
Noble gases never react in nature. In the laboratory, heavier noble gases can be forced to form compounds with fluorine (F).

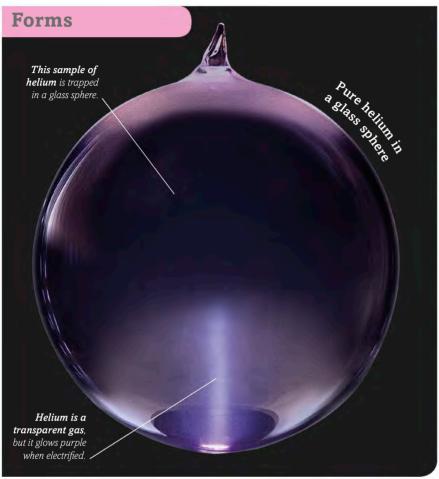


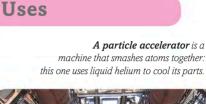
Compounds

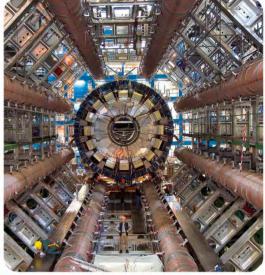
These gases form no natural compounds. However, xenon (Xe), krypton (Kr), and argon (Ar) can be made to form compounds.

Helium



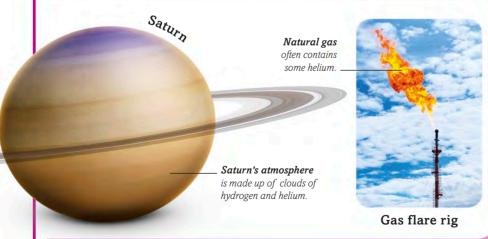






Large Hadron Collider, CERN, Switzerland

Helium-cooled MRI scanner



Helium is the second lightest element after hydrogen. This transparent gas was first discovered in 1868 by Sir William Ramsay, a Scottish chemist. Today, we know that a quarter of all the atoms in the Universe are helium. It is one of the main gases in the atmospheres of

giant gas planets, such as **Saturn**. Being so light, however, helium is very rare on Earth: it escapes from our atmosphere into space. It was not until 1895 that chemists managed to collect a sample of helium gas coming from uraninite, a radioactive uranium mineral. Today, helium is



collected from underground reservoirs or is found mixed in natural **gas** and oil. Unlike hydrogen, which is very reactive, helium is a noble gas and does not react at all. This property makes it safe to use in objects such as **party balloons** and **airships**. To turn helium

into a liquid, it must be cooled to an extreme temperature of -269°C (-452°F). Liquid helium is used to make things very cold, including the powerful magnets used to make **maglev trains** float along special tracks. **MRI scanners** also use liquid helium for cooling.



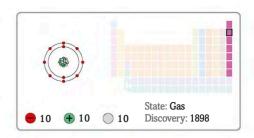
NEBULA This glowing nebula (cloud of gas and dust) is the Crescent Nebula. It is so vast that our entire Solar System would fit inside it seven times over. The nebula's light comes from a super-heated star at its centre. Known as WR 136, this star is 15 times heavier than our Sun and 250,000 times brighter. Its immense power comes from its fuel – helium.

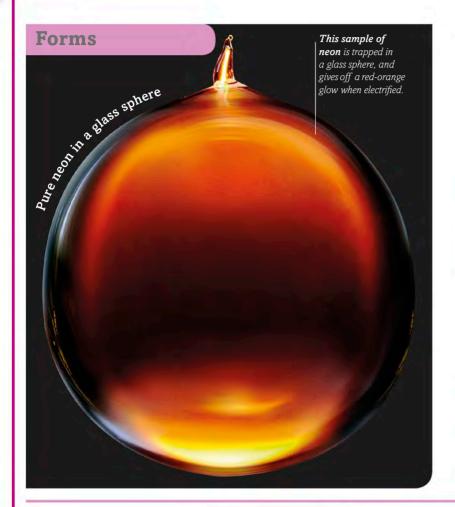


Helium makes WR 136 hot and bright. The star once burned using hydrogen, like our Sun. Hydrogen atoms smashed together in the star's core until they became helium atoms, releasing energy in the process. However, the star ran out of hydrogen about 200,000 years ago. It began smashing together helium atoms instead, and ballooned into a gigantic red star,

sending out a cloud of gas that spread around it. The star is producing a wind of electrified gases that hurtles out at 1,700 km (1,056 miles) every second. This wind continues to crash into the gas cloud, making it glow into the nebula we see. Eventually, WR 136 will run out of helium and its other fuels, and explode into an enormous fireball called a supernova.

Ne Neon

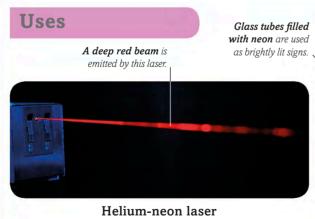






Neon lights may refer to lighting produced using any noble gas.

neon gas into the atmosphere.

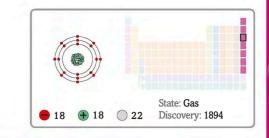




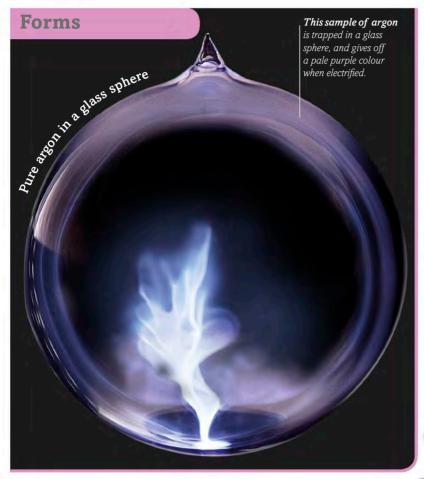
Neon is a rare element: it makes up just 0.001 per cent of our atmosphere. Some of it was locked in Earth's rocks when the planet formed, and this is released into the air by volcanic eruptions. Pure neon, a transparent gas, is extracted by cooling air to a temperature

of -189.34°C (-308.81°F), at which point the neon gas in the air turns to liquid. Neon can be mixed with helium to create research **lasers**. However, it is most commonly used in lighting, such as in **illuminated signs** or as bright warning beacons in the path of aircraft at airports.

Argon



Uses





is filled with argon to slow the loss of heat.



The Magna Carta, a historical document, is stored in argon, which forces out oxygen and water vapour that would damage the parchment.



Argon is the third most abundant gas in the atmosphere, after nitrogen and oxygen. It undergoes no reactions with any other element, and was named after the Greek word argos, meaning "idle". Argon does not conduct heat well so it is put in **double-glazed windows**,

and in diving suits during cold, deep dives. Its lack of reactivity is useful. Argon is used in museum displays to protect delicate exhibits. It also stops metals reacting during hot welding. This element can also be useful in the production of titanium.



The word krypton means the "hidden one" in Greek. This element exists as an inert gas in nature, which means that it does not react with almost any other element. Krypton is not found in any minerals and only tiny amounts of it can be found in the air. **Pure krypton** produces

a very bright white light when electrified with a current, which makes it ideal for use in **flash bulbs**. Krypton can react with the element fluorine to form the compound krypton fluoride, which is used to power some kinds of **laser**.

Xe Xenon

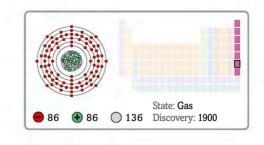


Xenon is so rare that there is only one atom of this gaseous element for every 10 million atoms in the air. Like the other noble gases,

xenon is colourless and odourless. It glows brightly when electrified, making it useful in very powerful lamps, such as those used in **film projectors** and

car headlights. The gas is harmless when breathed in and can be used as an anaesthetic. When preparing food, xenon lamps can purify the air. To propel spacecraft, xenon is used in some rocket engines that produce streams of fast-moving, electrified atoms.

Radon Radon



Uraninite



Radon is the only natural radioactive noble gas. This element is produced by the breakdown of uranium and other radioactive metals. Being a gas, radon escapes from minerals, such as **uraninite**, into the air. Radon is very radioactive and breathing it in can cause illness, such as lung cancer. In most places, the amount of radon in the air is incredibly tiny. However, its levels are high around volcanic springs and mud, where it bubbles out with other hot gases. Radon is also present in the water at **geothermal** power plants, which use heat energy from deep, volcanic rocks to make electricity. Radon is also more common in areas rich in granite rock. In these places, people use test kits to monitor their homes' radon levels.

It takes only

3.8 days for half of radon's atoms to split into atoms of other elements.

As it decays, a compound called thorium dioxide emits radon.

The muddy water from volcanic springs contains radon.



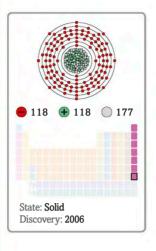
These pipes draw water containing radon from deep under the ground, and this is then used to power the plant.



This kit collects radon from the air so the amount of the gas in the area can be measured.



Oganesson





Yuri Oganessian

The heaviest element yet made is oganesson. Scientists think it would be solid at room temperature, but it may really be an unreactive, noble gas. However, only a few atoms have been created so far, so its properties are not well understood. Oganesson was first produced by a team of Russian and American scientists who smashed californium and calcium atoms together at the Joint Institute for Nuclear Research in Dubna, Russia. The element was named after Yuri Oganessian, the leader of the team.



Joint Institute For Nuclear Research, Russia

Glossary

Acid

A compound that contains hydrogen, and releases ions of hydrogen when it is dissolved in water. These ions make acids very reactive.

Actinide

A member of a group of radioactive metals with relatively large atoms.

Alchemist

People who experimented with chemicals before the science of chemistry began. Alchemists thought they could turn ordinary metals into gold.

Alkali

A compound that takes hydrogen ions from water molecules when it is dissolved in water. Alkalis react with acids.

Alkali metal

A group of metals that make alkalis when they react with water.

Alkaline earth metal

A group of metals that are found in nature, mainly in alkaline minerals.

Alloy

A material made by mixing a metal with tiny amounts of other metals or non-metals. Steel is a common alloy used in buildings and railways.

Artificial

Something that does not exist in nature. Several elements, including all that are heavier than uranium, are artificially produced by scientists in laboratories.

Atmosphere

The mixture of gases that surrounds a planet or moon. Earth's atmosphere is a mixture of nitrogen, oxygen, and argon, with tiny amounts of several other gases.

Atom

The smallest unit of an element. Atoms are composed of protons, neutrons, and electrons. The atoms of a particular element all have the same number of protons.

Atomic number

The number of protons in an atom of an element. Every element has a unique, unchanging atomic number.

Battery

A device containing chemicals that react to produce an electric current. There are two main kinds of battery: rechargeable and non-rechargeable.

Boiling point

The temperature at which a liquid gets hot enough to change into a gas.

Bond

The attraction between atoms that holds them together in an element or a compound.

Brittle

A way of describing a hard solid that shatters easily.

Carbonate

A compound that contains carbon and oxygen atoms, as well as atoms of other elements. Many minerals are carbonates.

Catalyst

A substance that speeds up a chemical reaction.

Chemist

A scientist who studies the elements, their compounds, and chemical reactions.

Chemistry

The scientific study of the properties and reactions of the elements.

Chemical

Another word for a substance, generally meaning a compound made from several elements.

Combustion

A chemical reaction, involving oxygen, in which a fuel burns to produce heat and light in the form of flames



Flames are the result of **combustion**.

Compound

A substance made of the atoms of one or more elements that are bonded together in a particular combination.

Conductor

A substance that lets heat or electricity flow easily through it.

Contract

To make or become smaller. Solids, liquids, and gases usually contract when the temperature goes down.

Corrosion

A chemical reaction that attacks a metal, or other solid object, usually due to the presence of oxygen and water.



Crystal

A naturally occurring solid substance whose atoms are arranged in a regular three dimensions pattern.

Decay

A process in which unstable atoms of radioactive elements break apart. The atoms of one element are transformed into those of another element during decay.

Density

The amount of matter held within a known volume of a material.

Dissolve

To become completely mixed into another substance. In most cases, a solid, such as salt, dissolves in a liquid, such as water.

Earthenware

A basic form of pottery, in which clay is heated to make it form hard structures.

Electrolysis

A process in which a compound is split into simpler substances using an electric current. Many elements, such as aluminium, are purified from their compounds in ores in this way.

Electrode

An electrical contact in an electric circuit. Electrodes can have a positive or negative charge.

Electron

A negatively charged particle inside an atom. Electrons orbit the atom's nucleus (or core) in layers called shells. They are also exchanged or shared by atoms to make bonds that hold molecules together.

Element

A pure substance that cannot be broken down into any simpler substances. Elements are the building blocks of matter. There are 118 known elements on Earth.

This element calcium is in crystal form.

Expand

To make or become bigger. Solids, liquids, and gases usually expand when the temperature rises.

Fission

A process in which the nucleus of an unstable atom splits in two when it collides with a neutron. It releases more neutrons that start the cycle again, and this continues as a chain reaction. Many unstable nuclei undergo fission spontaneously, without being hit by a neutron. Fission releases a lot of energy. The process is used to generate electricity in nuclear power plants, and it can trigger atom bomb explosions.

Flammable

A way of describing a material that can catch fire easily.

Fusion

A process in which small atoms, such as those of hydrogen, are fused together with such force that they merge to form larger atoms, while releasing a lot of energy. The Sun is powered by the fusion of hydrogen atoms into helium in its central core.

Cac

A state in which the particles of matter (atoms or molecules) are not attached to each other, and move freely. A gas can flow, take any shape, and fill any container.

Group

A set of elements in a column in the periodic table. Elements in a group have similar properties because each atom has the same number of electrons in its outer shell.

Halogen

A member of a group near the far right of the periodic table. Halogens form salts with metals. They are reactive, non-metallic elements.

Hardness

A measure of how easy it is to scratch or cut a substance with another substance.

Hydroxide

A type of compound containing hydrogen and oxygen, and normally a metallic element.



Ion

An atom or a group of atoms that have an electric charge. While atoms have no overall charge, they become positive ions if they lose electrons or negative ions if they gain electrons.

Insulator

A substance that does not let heat or electricity flow easily through it.

Isotope

A form of an element with atoms that have the same number of protons but a different number of neutrons.

Lanthanide

A member of a set of metals with relatively large atoms. The elements in this series sit with the actinides, below the main part of the periodic table.

Laser

A beam of light with a single wavelength, in which the waves are all perfectly in step. Lasers are used in electronics and surgery.



of mixture.

LED

Short for light-emitting diode. An LED is a device that produces light when an electric current passes through it. The colour of its light depends on the compounds used in it.

Liquid

A state in which the particles of matter (atoms or molecules) are only loosely attached to each other, and move freely. A liquid can flow and take any shape, but has a fixed volume.

Mass

The amount of matter in a substance.

Matter

The material that makes up everything around us.

Maglev

Short for magnetic levitation. This refers to some kinds of high-speed train that use magnets to propel themselves while hovering over a track.

Magnet

A solid object that produces a magnetic field, which attracts certain materials to it and can attract or repel other magnets.

Magnetic

Relating to a magnet.

Magnetic field

The force field around a magnet.

Melting point

The temperature at which a solid gets hot enough to turn into a liquid.

Metal

A type of element that is likely to react by giving away the outermost electrons in its atoms. Most elements are metals, and they tend to be hard, shiny solids. Mercury is the only metal that is liquid at room temperature.

Mineral

A naturally occurring solid compound – or mixture of compounds – made up of different elements. Every mineral has particular characteristics, such as crystal shape and hardness. Minerals are mixed together to make the rocks in Earth's crust.

Mixture

A collection of substances that fill the same space but are not connected by chemical bonds. Examples of mixtures are seawater, milk, and mud. The contents of a mixture can be separated by a physical process, such as filtration.

Molecule

A single particle of a compound. Its two or more atoms are bonded together.

Neutron

A neutral particle in the nucleus of an atom. A neutron is about the same size as a proton but it does not have an electric charge.

Noble gases

A group of elements that are unreactive and generally form no compounds with the other elements. This is because the outermost shells in their atoms are filled with electrons. This group sits on the extreme right of the periodic table.

Non-metal

A type of element that is likely to react by acquiring electrons in the outermost shell of its atoms. Non-metals are usually crystalline solids, such as sulfur, or gases, such as oxygen. Bromine is the only non-metal that is liquid at room temperature.

Nucleus

An atom's core, which contains its protons and neutrons. Nearly all the mass of an atom is packed into its nucleus.

Ore

A rock or mineral from which a useful element such as a metal can be purified and isolated.

Oxide

A compound in which oxygen is bound to one or more other elements.

Particle

A basic unit of which substances are made. Sub-atomic particles are units of which atoms are made including protons, neutrons, electrons, and many other smaller ones.

Particle accelerator

A machine in which atoms or sub-atomic particles are made to collide at high speeds. These collisions are then studied by scientists. Particle accelerators are used to produce artificial elements as well as study particles smaller than atoms. A cyclotron is a type of particle accelerator.



Period

A set of elements in a row in the periodic table. Each atom of the elements in the first period have one electron shell. Atoms in the second period have two electron shells.

Periodic table

A table that identifies and classifies all known elements.

Photograph negative

A film or plate that has been exposed to light to show an image with reversed colours.

Photosynthesis

A complicated set of chemical reactions by which plants make their food. They use the energy of sunlight to convert water and carbon dioxide into sugar and oxygen.

Pollution

Harmful substances that are released into the environment. Pollution can be chemical – a gas, liquid, or solid added to the air, water, or soil.

Pressure

A measure of how hard a force pushes on a surface. Pressure depends upon the strength of the force and the area of the surface.

Proton

A positively charged particle in the nucleus of an atom. Protons attract electrons, and they circle the nucleus.

Radar

A system that detects the positions and speed of distant objects, such as aircraft.

Radiation

Energy released by atoms as light, infrared, ultraviolet (UV), and X-rays. The term "radiation" is also used to describe the rays given out by radioactive substances.

Radioactive

Describes a substance that contains unstable atoms, in which the nucleus breaks apart,

or decays. When a nucleus decays, it releases at least one particle and its atomic number changes, so that the atom becomes a different element.

Reaction

A chemical process in which atoms or molecules form bonds with each other to form a new compound – or rearrange, to produce different compounds.

Renewable energy

A source of energy that will not run out, for example, wind.

Rust

The common name for the compounds that form when iron reacts with oxygen and water.

Salt

A compound that forms when an acid reacts with an alkali. Sodium chloride is the most familiar example of a salt.

Semi-metal

An element that has properties of both metals and non-metals.

Smelting

A chemical process that involves great heat in which a metal is extracted from its ore.

Solid

A state in which the particles of matter (atoms or molecules) are bound to each other, so they remain in fixed positions. A solid has a fixed shape and volume.

Stainless steel

An alloy of iron and carbon that also contains other metals, such as chromium, which stop the iron from rusting and increase its toughness.

Superconductor

A substance through which an electric current flows with no resistance; most substances resist the flow of electricity, and produce heat when current flows.

Synthetic

Another word for artificial. Out of the 118 known elements on Earth, more than 25 are synthetically made.

Toughness

A quality of a solid that shows how difficult it is to break. Steel is very tough – it may bend or twist, but is much harder to break.

Transition metal

A member of the set of metals that sit in the middle of the periodic table. Most metals belong to this set.

Toxic

Another word for poisonous or harmful.

Transparent

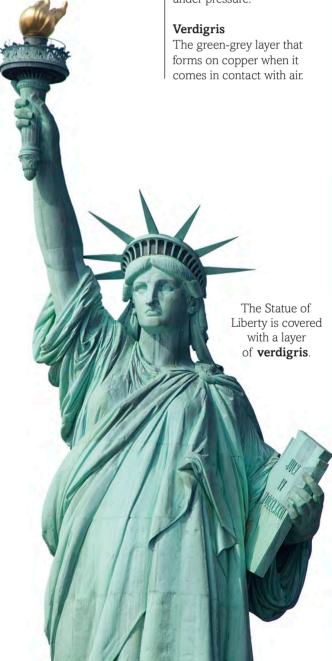
Another word for see-through. Glass, water, and air are transparent to light. Many materials are transparent to other forms of radiation.

Vacuum

An empty space that does not contain air or any other substance.

Vapour

A gas that can easily be changed back to a liquid, by cooling it or putting it under pressure.



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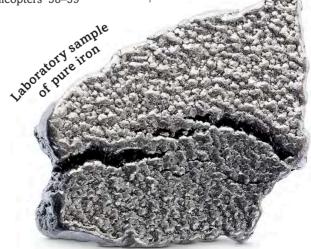
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